TODAY'S EDUCATION

The Journal of the National Education Association
January-February 1974

- Norman Cousins on Truth in Government
- Hugh Sidey on Watergate and the Classroom
- An Interview with Alvin Toffler
- Claiborne Pell, John Heinz on Teachers and Political Action
- Children with Problems
- The Energy Crisis
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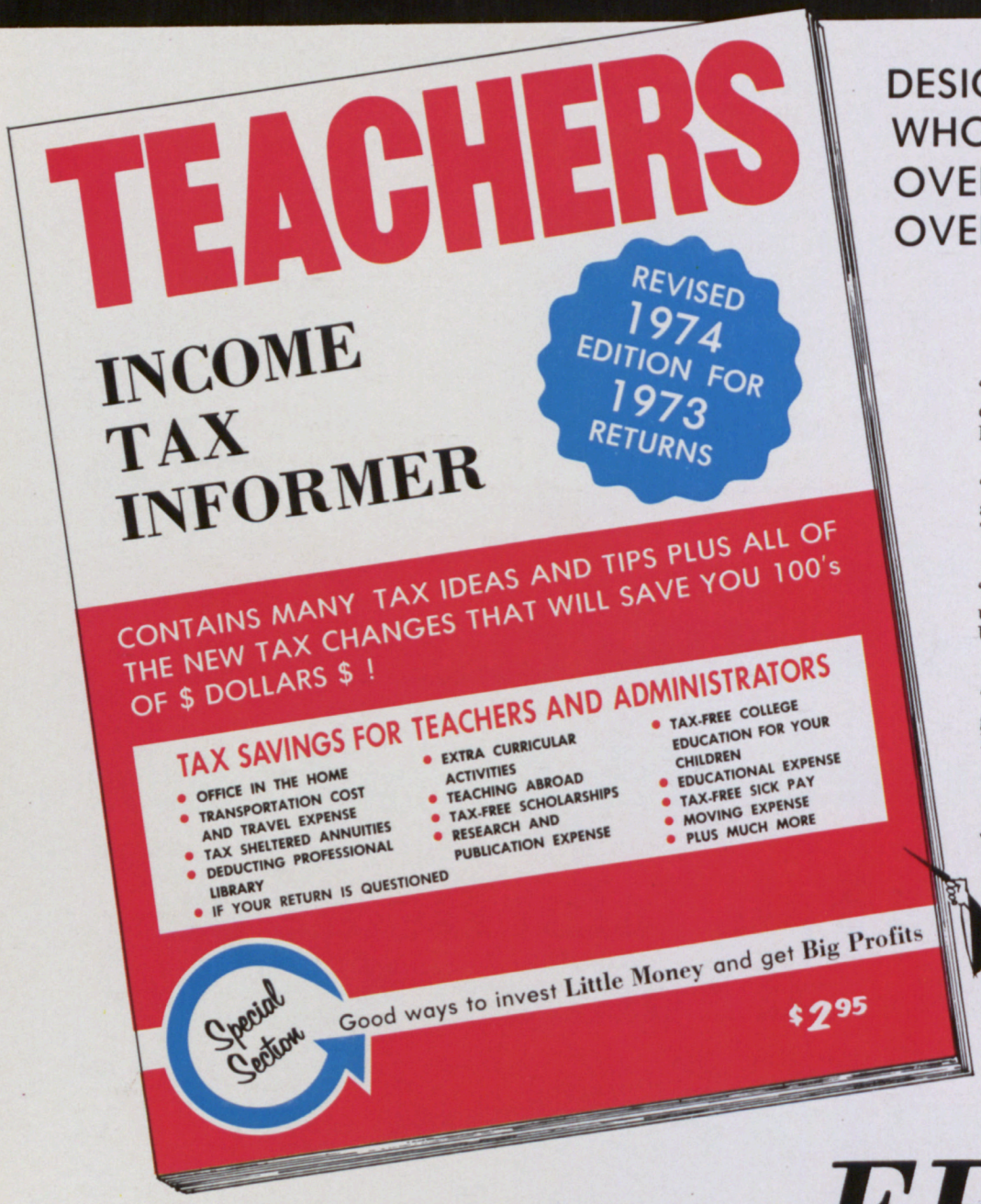
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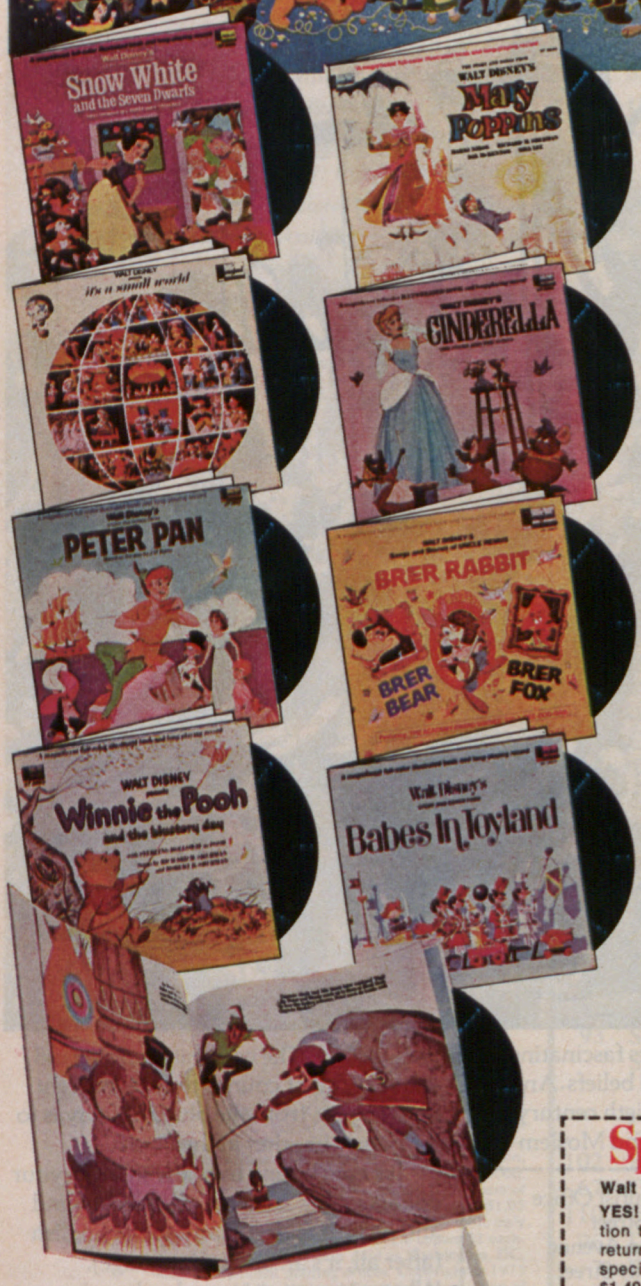

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SPECIAL FEATURE

29 **Children with Problems**
Marilyn Whiteside, Beverly J. Small, Jean Mayer

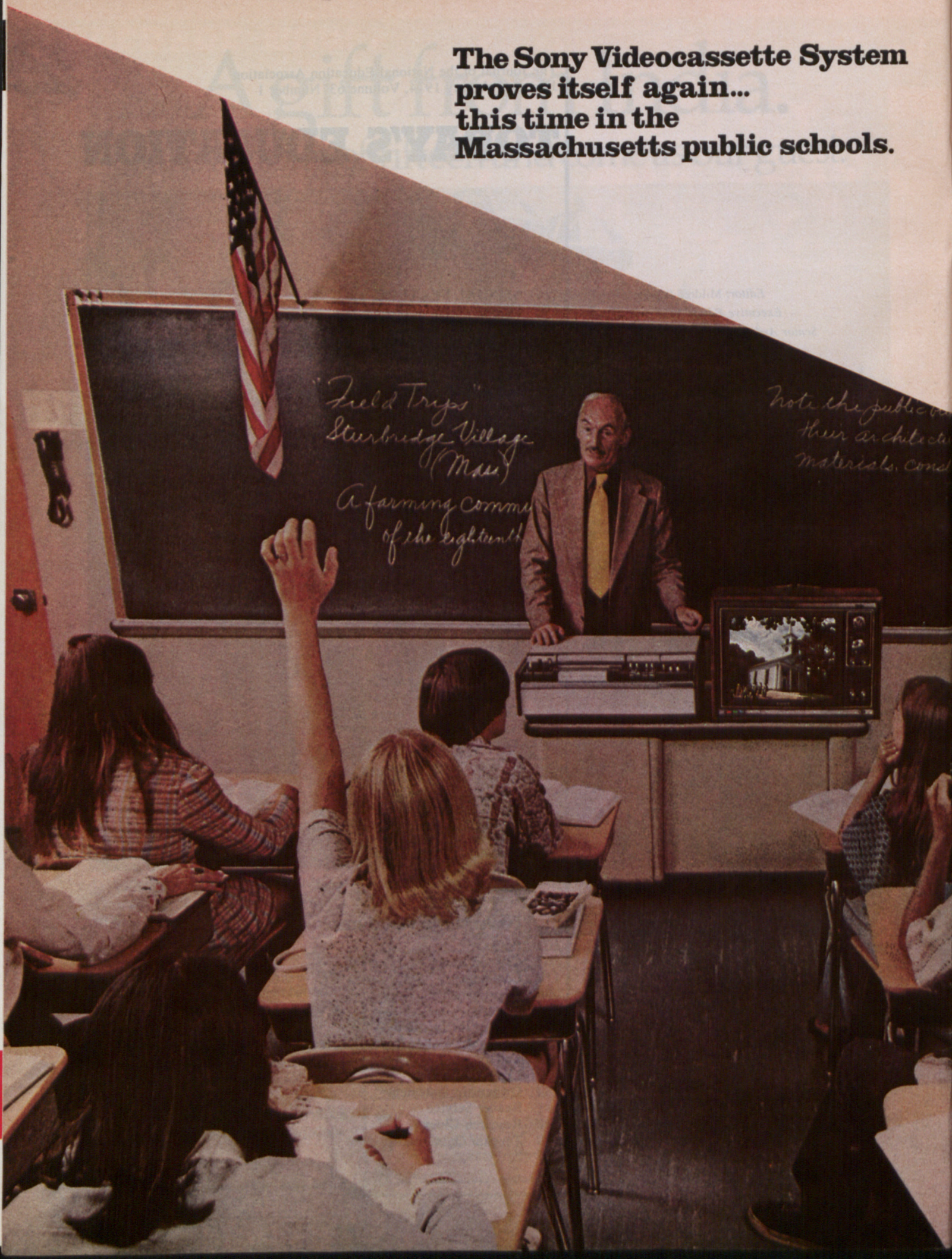
ARTICLES

7 **Strengthening Our Political Power Base**
Helen D. Wise
20 **Truth in Government**
Norman Cousins
23 **Watergate and the Classroom**
Hugh Sidey
26 **Modifying Pupil Self-Concept and Behavior**
Girolama Garner
44 **The Energy Crisis**
Theodore Weaver
50 **Criticisms of Standardized Testing**
Milton G. Holmen and Richard F. Docter
61 **How the Whole Jar Got Spilled**
Teresa Foley
62 **How To Innovate Successfully**
Daniel S. Arnold and Audrey Goodloe
68 **A Victory for Teacher Power**
Senator Claiborne Pell
70 **An Extraordinary Force**
Congressman H. John Heinz III
72 **The Role of the Future in Education**
Alvin Toffler interviewed by June Grant Shane and Harold G. Shane
77 **The Study of Religion in the Public Schools**
James V. Panoch
80 **Bible Literature in the Curriculum**
Ruth D. Hallman
83 **Humanism and the American Work Ethic**
Erwin R. Smarr, M.D., and Philip J. Escoll, M.D.
86 **The "Real" World of Television**
Larry Gross
93 **Sound Reasoning**
Steve Brody

CONTINUING FEATURES

102 Books
67 Cartoon Essay
110 Comment
96 Developments
7 Editorial
88 Free or Inexpensive
100 Law and Teacher Rights
8 Letters
93 Light Touch
89 Ownership Statement
111 Reader Service
12 Research Clues
19 Teacher Opinion Poll

The Sony Videocassette System proves itself again... this time in the Massachusetts public schools.



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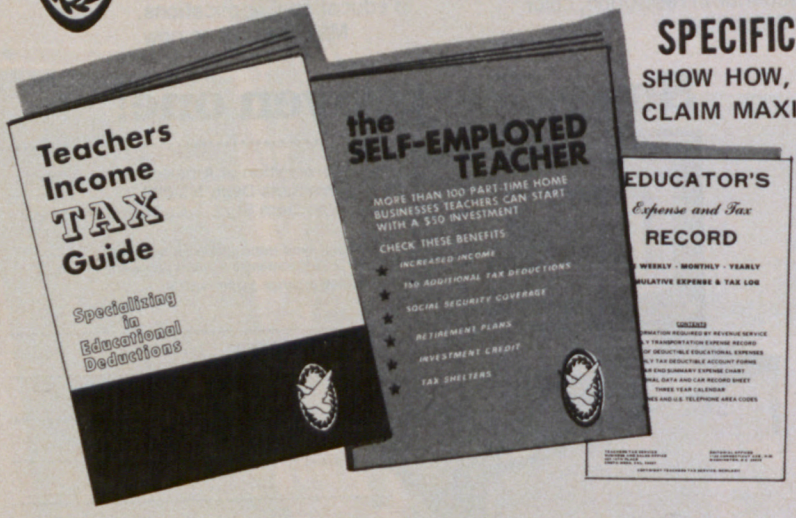

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EDITORIAL

Strengthening Our Political Power Base

By HELEN D. WISE
NEA President.

History tells us that virtually every educational decision is a *political* decision, derived from the authority which voters give to elected officials at every level of government. Over the years, we've worked hard as a profession to make our voice heard by political leaders, and we've made significant progress in helping supporters of education get elected and stay in office. We've also managed to throw a few rascals out of office.

Although I'm proud of our track record, particularly in the 1972 general elections, the harsh fact is that too many teachers are working in crowded classrooms, in shabby facilities, and under political policies that rob the young people in our charge of opportunities to develop their talents and abilities to the fullest. We know all too well what happens to children when school programs are inadequate and school dollars are short.

Yet, unquestionably, we can do more than we've been doing to shape educational policy. Teachers are two million strong, and any politician who can count knows how much power an active, determined group of that size can generate. We hold tremendous power merely by virtue of our numbers at the ballot box. But I believe that our efforts in the political arena must move swiftly into a new dimension: *activity by each and every one of us within the party system* to help assure that education is a top priority in party platforms and that pro-education candidates are nominated.

Cynics will say that the scandals and upheavals of the past two years have weakened the party system. I urge you not to fall into the trap of tuning out or turning off because some people in politics play dirty tricks.
We still have strong political parties. They are facing general elections this year, they're going to nominate candidates, and they will wage campaigns. The platforms they adopt and the kinds of candidates they offer will depend on the attitudes of people within their ranks.

We teachers, as informed and respected citizens, have a choice. We can abstain from party affairs and accept the platforms and candidates handed to us. Or we can start building a power base within the parties and have our say *before* the crucial decisions are made. The importance of party work is underscored by the fact that when candidates are unopposed, the primary is the election itself.

How can you work effectively in the party structure? As an individual, you should begin at the precinct level, volunteering your time and effort to the party committee of your choice. Attend the meetings, get to know the people, and discuss with the precinct chairman the kind of role you can play and how much time you can devote to it. Political parties need workers, and even an hour or two of your time each week will help. Equally valuable to the party will be the expertise you can provide in discussions of official policy. Relatively few politicians know enough about education to formulate constructive positions and evaluate potential nominees on valid criteria, so they can use our help.

It's vital, also, that state and local associations play a major role in bringing educators together in the political process. There are many ways to do it, ranging from grass roots lobbying to marches up the Capitol steps. But within the party structure, I suggest another kind of state association activity in states that have state party conventions where teachers may be delegates: Identify the teacher delegates and help them organize their efforts.

One state has done this effectively by having the teacher delegates register at a place in the convention hall specifically reserved for them. Scores of teachers organized themselves into caucuses and formed the nucleus of an education lobby within the party. Returning home, they recruited their colleagues in support of positions and nominees favorable to education. The association supported the teacher caucuses—in both parties—with funds, facilities, and staff assistance. It helped each group produce its own mailings and sent all of the teacher delegates to Washington, DC, to confer with their Congressmen. Space in the association newsletter was made available for each group to publicize its activities and program, including the enrollment of party workers.

This association activity has provided a pipeline into each party and given teachers visibility as a specific political force within the parties.

Even if your state does not have a political party convention, teachers individually and collectively can change the direction of government.

This year, more than ever, political parties will be reorganizing and will be looking for new blood and new direction in order to regain an acceptable status. The opportunity has never been better for teachers to assure that our students will not be shortchanged by the people who win the next election. □

LETTERS

Ideas and opinions in this feature are those of the writers and not necessarily of the NEA. "Letters" is primarily a forum for NEA members. Therefore, if you are currently a member, please paste the mailing label from one of your recent copies of Today's Education *at the top of your letter. Please also indicate your school, position, and home address.*

Responses to Ginott

In "Driving Children Sane" (November-December), Dr. Ginott said that a teacher possesses "a tremendous power to make a child's life miserable or joyous." How I wish that he had gone on to say that teachers would have a much better chance of making children joyous if class loads were sensible. Students must have the space and teacher attention they need in order to develop into "sane" human beings.

—Kay Wilson Copley, *music specialist, Brentwood Elem. School, Greeley, Colorado.*

With due respect to Dr. Ginott, if 20 guests came to my home every day and said they had forgotten their umbrellas, it wouldn't take long for me to say, "Stupid people, you have forgotten your umbrellas too often. Get wet!"

—Regina Ash, *science teacher, William Wirt Junior High School, Riverdale, Maryland.*

Education for Peace

Of the several fine articles in the November-December issue, I most appreciated NEA President Wise's comments on "Education for Peace—Today." When Sputnik was launched, we went on a math and science binge. Those who stressed the humanities were ignored. Now we have put men on the moon and cannot enjoy neighborliness and peace in our own communities and the world. As Mrs. Wise has so well expressed it, a change in outlook may be in order.

—Dick L. Mitchell, Jr., *retired teacher, Pine Grove, California.*

Values

Professor Fraenkel ("Strategies for Developing Values," November-December) asserts that students are often unaware of their values (which is to say they have none) and, consequently, teachers must assist students in identifying them. I reject this viewpoint. Too often, the despairing plea that students lack values means only that they do not possess the "right" values of the teacher, who now feels morally obligated to impose his.

—Henry A. Silver, *Spanish teacher, Bridgeton (New Jersey) High School.*

Teacher's Right to Privacy?

"The Teacher's Right to Privacy"

(Continued on page 10)

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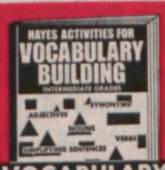

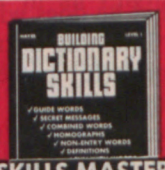

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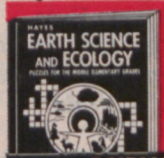

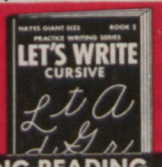

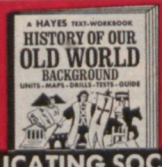

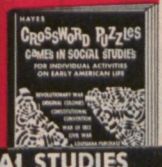

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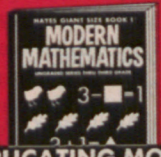

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(November-December) made my blood boil! NEA Resolution C-18 (Moral and Ethical Values) stresses the importance of professional behavior inside and outside the classroom. But the article seems to indicate that what we do outside the classroom is nobody's business. It cites as examples of teachers who had their privacy invaded: a practicing homosexual, a teacher who pleaded guilty to "outraging decency," and one who had an illegitimate pregnancy.

If we accept the tenet that we teach the whole child, then it should follow that the whole teacher teaches the whole child. The entire life of a teacher contributes to what he is and what he does within the classroom.

Teaching is truly a rewarding and wonderful profession, a noble challenge. But the responsibility is so great that it is frightening. Never in the history of our nation have we needed moral integrity and spiritual strength as we do today. We must question whether our attitudes and behavior in private and public are such as to provide ideal models for our students. If we, as individuals, set high standards of decency, we should have no anxiety about what is revealed about our private lives.

—Beulah M. Ayris, *kindergarten teacher, on leave from Fruitland Park School, Lake County, Florida*

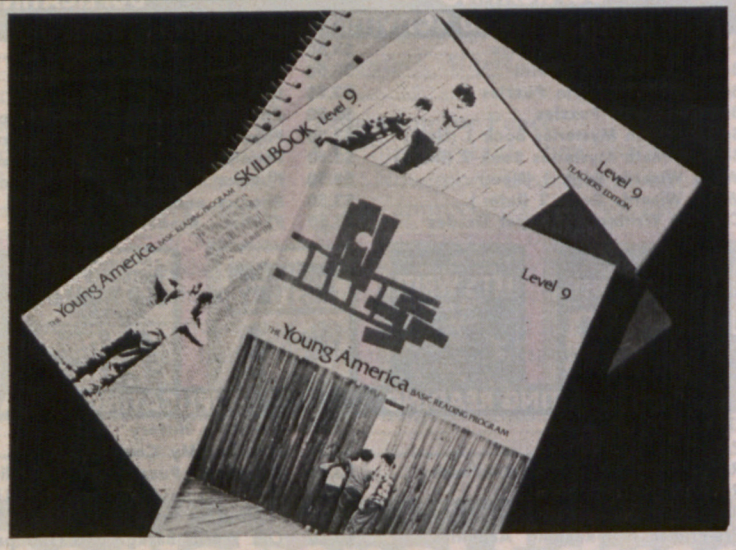
♦ **The editors call attention to the following statements in the last paragraph of the article: "NEA's assistance has not indicated agreement or disagreement with the teachers' private conduct. NEA has impressed upon the courts that the determinant of employment must be professional performance, not conduct which has no demonstrable relationship to teaching."**

Year-Round Schools

As N. S. Rifkin points out in her article about year-round schools (November-December), mini-courses are part of these programs in high schools which have adopted the new school calendar. Although I am not teaching in a year-round school, I have been involved for several years in an English program which operates on a nine-week option basis. The short courses tend to be meatier and more concentrated (although sometimes more gimmicky than substantive) than semester or year-long ones.

Teachers and other planners must, however, be alert to a disadvantage of a system of mini-courses elected in no special sequence, with no special prerequisites. In such a system, there is danger of fragmentation and discontinuity.

With families becoming more mo-



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bile, children often find a home base, a point of personal reference, in their school, classmates, and teachers. In the course of a year in an English section, for example, a student might well make a friend or two and get to know and like his teacher. On the other hand, a system of short courses may prevent the development of such relationships.

In revamping the school calendar, we need to be careful to avoid making school a learning factory with interchangeable units.

—Rita Nathalie Kosofsky, *English teacher, Walt Whitman High School, Bethesda, Maryland.*

British Open University

The British Open University described in the Shanes' interview with Walter James (November-December) is doubly exciting—as a concept and as a working practice. It is bringing to life the age-old dream and slogan of adult education, "Lifelong Learning."

Our British cousins are actively creating new learning opportunities to challenge old learning institutions. We who pride ourselves on our technical ingenuity and innovative outlook might well imitate them and apply our vast electronic and media resources to the same ends.

—Jack Heimowitz, *Tucson (Arizona) High School.*

New Book

I recommend *The History of the Mississippi Teachers Association* as a worthwhile addition to any education library. It is available from MTA-NEA, 1328 Lynch Street, Jackson, Mississippi 39203, for $5.

—Samuel B. Ethridge, *director, NEA Goal V: Human and Civil Rights for All Educators and Children.*

Boners

"Biblical Boners" by Thayer Warshaw (September-October) cannot be tolerated in a professional journal dedicated to education.

At one time, I thought collecting and laughing at pupil errors was funny, too, but the new climate in education has convinced me that this is unfair to the learner, who should have the security of making mistakes without fear of ridicule. Please publish no more of this.

Instead why not use mental exercises or brain teasers for humor? One that I've had fun with is taking a list of book titles and pairing them with original subtitles. For example:

Bring Me a Unicorn (And Other Suggestions for Stimulating "Show and Tell")

The Hollow Hills (Suggestions for Papier-Mâché Projects for Geography Class)

Breakfast of Champions (An Argument for School Breakfasts As Well As Lunches)

Don't Look Now (Or How To Avoid the Necessity of Discipline)

The Winds of War (A Guide to Sensing Student Unrest and Preventing Incidents)

Courage and Hesitation (The Diary of a First Year Teacher)

Once Is Not Enough (Variations on Reteaching Lessons).

—Mary Bramer, *English teacher, Elgin, Illinois.*

How do other readers feel about printing pupil boners? Test your reactions on Lawrence's collection on page 94.

Commager Statement

Dr. Commager's "Only the National Government . . ." (September-October) is as enlightening and inspiring as his great editorial in *Life* a quarter century ago.

—Wayne M. Carle, *superintendent of schools, Hammond, Indiana.*

I read Commager's article and could not believe that a distinguished author and historian could be so biased and opinionated.

The article was an affront to Republicans, Democrats, and other political groups as well. NEA should maintain a nonpartisan position, as its members have differing beliefs.

—Norma Beavers, *special education teacher, San Bernardino, California.*

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RESEARCH CLUES

By ALEXANDER FRAZIER
Professor of Education, The Ohio State University, Columbus.

Findings like those reported here have to be assessed carefully. What works in one situation may not in another. A single study seldom settles an issue or determines "the truth" once and for all. Knowledge accumulates slowly.

But new ideas deserve our consideration and often repay it. Moreover, we may sometimes be struck as much by the audacity and ambition of a researcher as by his results. If a study opens up a new field of speculation for us, that may be contribution enough.

In what ways do students who like mathematics differ from those who don't?

Using a "mathematics self-concept" instrument, this study sought to distinguish seventh graders who felt good about themselves in relationship to mathematics from those who did not. Subjects were asked to rate such statements as these from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree": "The subject matter in mathematics is too repetitious and requires too much drill," "When I attend a mathematics class or hear mathematics being discussed, I get a slight sick feeling," and "I feel happy when someone asks me to work out a problem in mathematics."

Results put against a framework of 18 variables indicate that for the 183 subjects, a high liking for mathematics was significantly related to amount of hours of home study each week, frequency of parent discussion of homework, socioeconomic status, verbal and nonverbal IQ, mathematics achievement test scores, attitude toward self-direction in study, and feeling of liking for teacher of mathematics.

See Keith A. Holly and others, "The Relationship of an Experimental Form of the Mathematics Self-Concept Scale to Cognitive and Non-cognitive Variables for a Sample of Seventh Grade Pupils in a Middle-Class Southern California Community," *Educational and Psychological Measurement,* Vol. 33 (Summer 1973), pp. 505-08.

What can be done about examination phobia?

Susan had tried twice to take her master's oral exam and failed each time "When I got there, I froze," she explained.

This time she had help through an elaborate program of systematic desensitization carried out over a month's time. Sixteen practice sessions, each composed of two or three half-hour periods separated by 20-minute breaks, were provided. Part of the program was aimed at establishing confidence in dealing with authors about whom questions might be asked. The other part was to "live through" successive steps in the "spatio-temporal" sequence of events to be undergone on examination day.

This time, the investigators are pleased to tell us, Susan finally made it.

See Ralph D. Bruno and James P. McCullough, "Systematic Desensitization of an Oral Examination Phobia," *Journal of Behavior Therapy and Experimental Psychiatry,* Vol. 4 (June 1973), pp. 187-89.

Why do people write on walls?

One answer is that the wall is there as a symbol of enclosure and seems to invite both decoration and desecration. As we know, men engaged in wall "writing" when they lived in caves.

The present report, based on a study of wall writings in the Los Angeles area, contends that such writing will occur wherever the writer can count on an audience. Favored locations of outdoor writing are bridges and freeway underpasses, school routes, and recreation areas. Adolescents are judged responsible for most outdoor wall writing that occurs.

Indoors, the content of messages has not differed greatly throughout history. In Pompeii, these were found: "Once a man drinks, thereafter everything is in confusion," "Hermes recommends Calvetius for mayor," and "I am yours for 2 coppers."

See Harvey D. Lomas, "Graffiti: Some Observations and Speculations," *The Psychoanalytic Review,* Vol. 60 (Spring 1973), pp. 71-89.

Is "confusion" about sex role always a symptom of pathological behavior?

Sex-role uncertainty is first among the signals of mental illness, for men in particular. Or so Adlerian psychology has long contended. Recent studies offer continued support of the idea.

Disturbed men score lower on measures of masculinity and also view their parents as less sexually stable than do normal subjects. However, the meaning of the "sexually neutral" hairstyles and attire of today's young is yet to be assessed. To what extent does this phenomenon represent conscious rejection of overrigid sex-role stereotyping—and to what extent may it be something else? A need is expressed here for systematic research on the question.

See Henry B. Biller, "Sex-Role Uncertainty and Psychopathology," *Journal of Individual Psychology,* Vol. 29 (May 1973), pp. 24-5.

Can peers be used as "managers" in behavior modification projects?

Pairing off for turn-about tutoring can work well. But can children work together effectively in the application of behavior modification techniques?

The present investigators complicated the task of finding an answer to this question by conducting an experiment with behaviorally disordered children at a summer camp. Nine pairs of managers and subjects were set up to target in on changing behaviors like these: threatening

(Continued on page 14)

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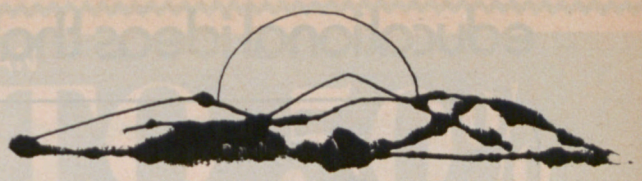

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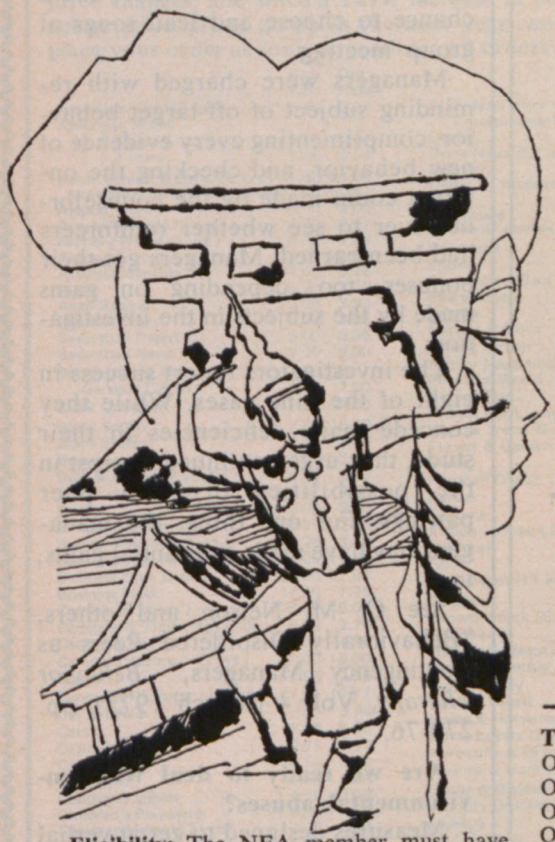

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OH-5	July 14—July 30	New York and Cleveland
OH-6	July 19—August 4	Philadelphia and Minneapolis
OH-7	July 24—August 9	New York and Pittsburgh
OH-8	July 29—August 14	Boston and Chicago
OH-9	August 3—August 19	New York and Kansas City
OH-10	August 8—August 24	Washington, D.C., and Chicago
OH-11	August 13—August 29	Baltimore and New York
OH-14	June 23—July 10	Los Angeles
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RESEARCH CLUES

(Continued)

others, leaving the group, not finishing a task, name-calling, expressing feelings of homesickness, and wetting pants or bed. Rewards for substitute behavior included swings on the grapevine, extra rest time, and a chance to choose and lead songs at group meeting.

Managers were charged with reminding subject of off-target behavior, complimenting every evidence of new behavior, and checking the on-target count made by the counselor-observer to see whether reinforcers had been earned. Managers got their bonuses, too, depending on gains made by the subjects in the investigation.

The investigators report success in eight of the nine cases. While they concede many deficiencies in their study, they urge continued interest in the possibilities of such peer pairings. For one thing, the managers may have made substantial gains, too.

See C. M. Nelson and others, "Behaviorally Disordered Peers as Contingency Managers," *Behavior Therapy,* Vol. 4 (March 1973), pp. 270-76.

Are we ready to deal with environmental abuses?

Measures designed to get at verbal commitment, evidence of action, level of feeling, and actual knowledge in the area of environmental problems were administered to small numbers of three Southern California groups: Sierra Club members, college students, and noncollege adults.

The results were predictable. Sierra Club members were high all the way around. The others were strong on verbal commitment and expressed feelings, low on action and knowledge.

The authors contend that the need for more education is as urgent as it is evident.

See Michael P. Maloney and M. P. Ward, "Ecology: Let's Hear from the People," *American Psychologist,* Vol. 28 (July 1973), pp. 583-86.

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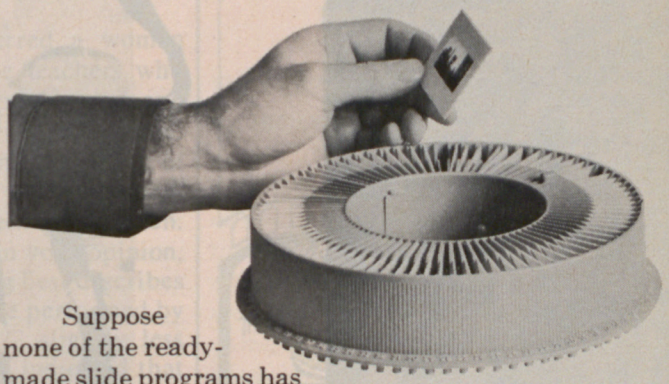

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Above is a reproduction of the full-page NEA advertisement which appeared in the September and December issues of Ebony. The ad also appeared in Time (3 issues) and in Newsweek, Reader's Digest (2 issues) and National Geographic—plus 18 large-circulation newspapers.

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More than 170 million Americans saw NEA's message in national magazines and statewide newspapers in September, October, and December. To reinforce the message in your own community, you will, we hope, display proudly the NEA decal.

TEACHER OPINION POLL

Teachers and Their Principals

☐ **Public school teachers believe** that they should be involved in the selection of their school principals, preferably as members of a screening committee to recommend candidates, and that the principal should function primarily as a head teacher or group leader for the teachers in his school.

In its 1973 Teacher Opinion Poll, NEA Research asked a representative nationwide sample of public school teachers several questions regarding principals and the principalship. One question was:

> In your opinion, should teachers be involved in the selection of their school principal? If yes, in what way should they be involved?

About 60 percent of the respondents said that teachers should be involved, three-fourths of this group indicating that teachers should be members of a screening committee to recommend candidates. Five teachers in 10 in the Southeast favored involvement, but 6 teachers in 10 in the Middle states and the West and about 7 in 10 in the Northeast did.

Five teachers in 10 age 40 and older favored involvement, and nearly 7 in 10 of those under age 40 did.

Ninety-one percent of the teachers have a man principal: 84 percent of the elementary and 98 percent of the secondary. About 17 percent of the teachers in school systems enrolling 25,000 or more pupils have women principals, but only about 7 percent of those in smaller systems do. Also, more teachers in the Northeast (12 percent) than in the other regions and more teachers in urban (13 percent) than in suburban and rural areas have women principals.

Slightly less than half the teachers responding said that they preferred to teach under a man principal, the same proportion had no preference, and only the remaining 2 percent said that they preferred a woman principal. Half of the teachers who have men principals prefer men, and less than 2 percent prefer women. On the other hand, only 8 percent of those having women principals prefer women; 32 percent prefer men.

To the question, "In your opinion, which of the following best describes the role that should be performed by the school principal?" slightly less than half the teachers indicated that the principal should function primarily as a head teacher or group leader for the teachers in his school. Thirty-one percent thought the principal should be a middle-management executive carrying out the policies and directives of the central office. Twenty-one percent thought he should be the autonomous director of his school.

While 55 percent of the elementary teachers favored the principal functioning as a group leader, 42 percent of the secondary did. On the other hand, 25 percent of the secondary teachers but 16 percent of the elementary favored the autonomous director function. Preference for the group leader function increased with the teacher's age (46 percent of those under 30 to 52 percent of those 50 and older).

Six teachers in 10 reported that their principals actually functioned like middle-management executives; 2 in 10, that they were autonomous directors of their schools; and 2 in 10, that they acted like head teachers or group leaders. A majority of both elementary (56 percent) and secondary (65 percent) teachers reported their principals to be middle-management executives, 18 percent of the elementary but 24 percent of the secondary said they were autonomous directors of their schools, and 26 percent of the elementary but 11 percent of secondary said they acted like head teachers or group leaders.

—NEA Research.

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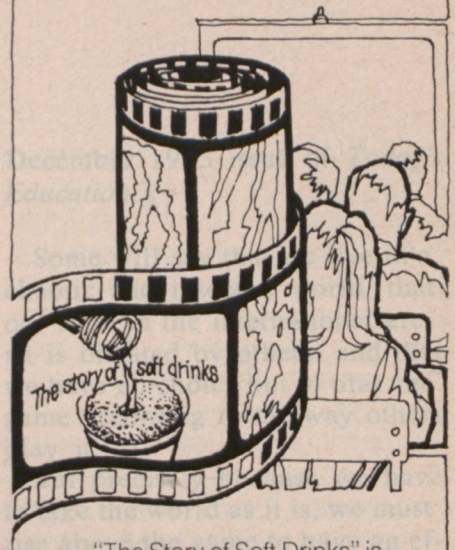

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Truth in Government

By NORMAN COUSINS
Editor, Saturday Review/World.

Telling the truth is the first business of government in an open society. In recent years, however, a strange new notion has gained ground—the idea that government has the right to decide what truths are to be told and when they are to be told.

This is not to say that truth has always been dispensed to the American people in an unbroken line from the Philadelphia Constitutional Convention through every President and every Administration until only recently. The big difference is that, in establishing an "intelligence" operation abroad in 1947, Congress, in effect, authorized our government to depart from truth and to practice secret violence, deceit, and subversion in our foreign policy. The underlying theory was that we were living in a hard, predatory, cloak-and-dagger world and that the only way to deal with a potential totalitarian enemy was to imitate him.

We may live in a world of plot and counterplot, but we also live in a world of cause and effect. Whatever the cause of the decision to legitimatize and regularize deceit abroad, the effect of the decision, ultimately and inevitably, was the extension of the practice of deceit at home as well.

For example, when the United States was involved in a coup against the neutralist government of Laos in 1960, we could not compartmentalize our denials. We could not tell the outside world that we had nothing to do with it without expecting that the American people would be deceived along with everyone else. The United States violated its own public commitment to the legal government of Laos by helping to stage the coup headed by Phoumi Nosavan, an anti-neutralist who was also a relative of the premier of Thailand.

Officially and publicly, the United States recognized and supplied military aid to the government of Souvanna Phouma. But U.S. arms and ammunition flowed more smoothly to the rebels than to the government. The bizarre result was that the United States was financing and supplying the two non-Communist sides in a three-sided civil war. Both of "our" sides wore American uniforms; both shot American bullets out of American rifles; and on payday, both sides collected money for their soldiers from the United States, although the legal government faced "procedural delays" when it tried to get promised funds released. The beneficiary of this incredible folly was the pro-Communist Pathet Lao. Thus, the line dividing still another Asian country hardened.

For a long time, the American people knew none of these things. The principal failure, of course, is not that the U.S. government denied the truth to the American people and the world. The principal failure here is that we did things we had to deny. Truth by government is not just a matter of open admission and factual reporting. If truth means anything, it must be a total process, beginning with policies and actions of government and

extending through to the public information services.

Another prime liability of authorized lying in foreign policy is that it makes for bad habits. It makes officeholders casual about the practices of deception. In a world in which it is difficult to know where foreign policy ends and national policy begins, it is all too easy to transpose habits from one to the other. Not that lying is all right if we confine our lying to foreigners. My point, indeed, is that we went off the track the moment we went into the business of international deceit. From that point, it was only a short and convenient step to use deceit in the general affairs of government at home.

To assume that such abuses of power are chargeable only to men now in power is all too easy. We will be meeting only part of the total problem if we do no more than identify the rascals and throw them out. The cleansing process is essential, of course, but at some point soon we will have to go beyond names and faces and strengthen the basic structure of an open society.

Truth in government has to be institutionalized. It needs a life of its own that transcends the men who happen to be in charge of the machinery of government at any given time. This is what is meant by a government of laws rather than of men. This is what the main design produced by the Philadelphia Constitutional Convention of 1787 was all about.

But this design has been slipping away from us in recent years. We have permitted exceptions from principle in the operation of our society, exceptions that cannot be accommodated or metabolized. We have made it possible for men in government to become bigger than the laws they have sworn to uphold.

The problem is not met just by changing men. The problem can only be met by giving increased attention to refurbishing and bolstering the basic principles of the society. Some of the main props of constitutional government are now so weakened by repeated misuse or abuse that they have to be redefined and restored.

There should be a test at the earliest possible moment of the constitutionality of any government agency that can spend large sums without public accounting or that can make decisions vitally affecting our foreign policy without constitutional sanction or that can engage in subversion abroad regardless of the fact that nothing is more basic in American history than respect for the right to self-determination of other peoples.

It is no accident that the Declaration of Independence begins with a reference to a "decent respect to the opinions of mankind." These words do not mean that all that is required is an awareness of the existence of other people. What they mean, if anything at all, is that this society is dedicated to the proposition that it is a human enterprise before it is a national enterprise and that the rights and welfare of other people are no less important than our own. [See "Education for Peace—Today" by Helen D. Wise in the November-December 1973 issue of *Today's Education.*]

Some will say that we live in a chaotic and insecure world, that our style in the international arena is dictated by others, and that we have no choice but to play the game according to the way others play it.

Yet precisely because we have to take the world as it is, we must rise above the game to have an effect. We have to think carefully about our own role and what we can do that has some chance of working, rather than how best to compete in the game of combustible anarchy. We cannot expect to succeed in the world political arena by imitating the practices and actions we profess to condemn. We still succeed only as we represent a rallying center for principles that command widespread response—principles concerned with basic human decencies and human rights and not with shadowy balance-of-power or balance-of-terror strategies.

The proper model statesman for America in its world position today is not Prince Metternich but Thomas Jefferson. And if we are looking for philosophical guidelines, we will probably find that James Madison and William James have far more to say to us and for us than Niccolò Machiavelli.

We must see the world as it is: a world of anarchy, a world in which each nation regards its national security or national advantage as its primary and frequently its only concern. The sum total of all these individual national con-

Telling the truth is the first business of government in an open society.

cerns is an explosive mixture.

The problem of anarchy is viewed only in the small and not in the large. Everyone understands what happens when the machinery of law in a small community suddenly breaks down, but there is no comparable awareness of the dangers that confront every member of the human species because of the absence of law binding our nations. No rational process now exists, therefore, for assuring the basic safety of the human species. We stumble into the future day-to-day, dependent more on the hope that our margin for error may not have been completely used up than on a working design for a peaceful world.

It is not reasonable or logical to assume that national statesmen will lead the way in taming nations or eradicating basic weaknesses of the UN or developing a governed world. Do not expect, Alexander Hamilton wrote, nations to take the initiative in developing restraints upon themselves.

Governments are not built to perceive great truths. Only people can perceive great truths. Governments specialize in small and intermediate truths. Their people have to instruct them in great truths.

One great truth of our time is that the means for meeting the largest problems on earth do not yet exist. A single government is incapable individually of solving them. A single government cannot by itself keep the oceans from becoming a global sewer nor the sky a poisonous canopy. Nor can a single government eliminate the need for military expenditures that cost the world's people $250 billion a year and dislocate economies all over the globe.

But there are some things an individual government can do. It can work with the large truth that our earth has to be governed. It can identify causes of world anarchy. It can present a great design for safeguarding our small planet and recognize that we are no longer dealing with narrow concerns but with the safety of the human habitat.

The American people are paying a fearsome price for the dominant condition of lawlessness among nations, which in turn affects conditions of life inside the United States. The lawlessness—

- Dominates the national budget.
- Is the prime cause of the inflation and the severe strain on our economy.
- Diverts energy, attention, and resources from our main needs.
- Subtracts from the quality of life.
- Caricatures our ideals.
- Creates a mood and a context in which the national security can all too easily be confused with the security of political parties or their leaders.
- Gives a President more personal options than he should have or than is healthy for the American people for him to have.

The big challenge, therefore, is to create a situation in which truth can live a less unnatural and precarious existence than at present and in which the right to know does not depend on special dispensations. We can do this best by making the achievement of world law the central and open objective of the foreign policy of this country.

Any nation that comes forward with such a design can expect to be rebuffed. But there is a distinction between rebuff and defeat. There is no defeat for the American people when they tie themselves to the great idea that human intelligence is equal to human needs. Beyond the clamor of clashing ideologies and the preening and jostling of sovereign tribes, a safer and more responsible world is waiting to be created. □

Mr. Cousins spoke on this topic at greater length last fall on receiving the 1973 Publisher of the Year Award from the Magazine Publishers Association.

On December 10, 1973, the 25th anniversary of adoption by the United Nations of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, NEA initiated a program to help secure ratification by the United States of treaties adopted by the UN to implement the Declaration. Among the agreements which the U.S. government has yet to ratify are those that would eliminate racial discrimination and genocide, and guarantee the political rights of women. The NEA Board of Directors at its November meeting adopted a resolution reaffirming NEA support of Declaration principles and pledging support of the UN call for a Decade To Eliminate Racism and Racial Discrimination.

Watergate and the Classroom

NEA Reaction to Watergate

"The NEA urges Congress to investigate—immediately, completely, and thoroughly—the activities of President Nixon and his Administration. Every effort must be made to determine the possible need to impeach the President, or to determine that the President's name be cleared. . . ."

The above resolution was passed by the NEA Board of Directors at its November meeting in Washington. The Board also passed a motion supporting NEA President Helen Wise's recent statements on Watergate. In a letter to President Nixon dated October 24, Dr. Wise said: "The nation's 2.2 million teachers share in the ground swell of public outrage registered by millions of Americans in the Administration's handling of the Watergate scandals. . . ." (See the December issue of the *NEA Reporter.*)

Dr. Wise's letter was quoted in *Time* Magazine. She also commented on Watergate on *NBC's Nightly News* and *NBC's Today Show* and in a speech at the National Press Club in Washington. In her speech, she said, "From this day forward, we are holding to strict account those who have demanded and received our trust as leaders."

Another motion passed at the NEA Board meeting called for a task force of teachers to develop for dissemination as soon as possible lesson plans, teaching guides, and other appropriate instructional materials related to Watergate (and the energy crisis) and "the consequent crisis of government in America."

By HUGH SIDEY
Washington Bureau Chief for Time *and Author of its weekly column, "The Presidency."*

One of the most persistent questions that I get in my travels in this country—from businessmen, parents, students—is What do we learn from Watergate?

Nobody has a clear answer yet, and it may take years to sort through the wreckage and perceive new rules of behavior and organization. But Americans are not ones to wait very long, and so already there is a vast amount of stirring on the issue. Since teaching is your business, let me give you some of my ideas about Watergate and how it may relate to the classroom.

It is my judgment that Watergate will, and perhaps already does, intrude upon your lives more than would be the case with any other group in the nation. Parents often are too busy and not informed enough to analyze the problems before us. Businessmen, I believe, are too preoccupied with their special interests to sort out this complicated puzzle. It is, thus, natural that people turn to the institutionalized arena for thought. To you, in other words.

At the University of Chicago, a course called "Constitutional Aspects of Watergate" was oversubscribed. In New England, a regional conference of high school and elementary teachers [sponsored by the NEA, the Maine Teachers Association, and the Council of New England Education Associations] met to talk about Watergate problems brought to the classroom. Questions were asked about the Bill of Rights. About Presidential power. About just who was violating the law. About the fear of political retribution if teachers discussed the issues openly.

I have received a number of letters from high school teachers who are turning government classes into Watergate seminars. I believe, as do many academicians with whom I have talked, that this focusing of attention on the Watergate phenomenon over the next months may have a more profound effect on how this nation goes into the future than any other single influence. You are magnifiers. In your classes, as you talk about this problem and arrive at conclusions and propound ideas, you will be setting in motion forces that will reach out to many more people than just those in front of you.

It is perhaps natural at these times to search for the clues as to what went wrong with our system. The Senate committee has had this in mind in its investigation. And many of the teachers with whom I have talked discussed the possibility of new laws that can be passed, institutional reforms that will control and restrain a President, campaign spending reforms that will lessen temptation. All of this is good. Undoubtedly, there are many changes in the system that can be made over the next years that will improve the Presidency.

But I have come to the conclusion that we have witnessed a failure of men, not of a system. Our

problem lies deeper than a laundry list of new bills and resolutions for the Congress. It reaches back into the homes and the communities of this nation. It goes right to the classrooms.

How could a President gather around him a group of men whose concepts of American democracy were so warped? How could they perceive their duties to be so far beyond the law, tradition, and plain decency?

I am convinced, within certain limitations, that this White House gang and those allied with it were indeed peculiar, drawn together by the smell of power and their singular ideas about it. Yet, I have encountered this same sort of thing around this nation in the board rooms of corporations, in the halls of Congress, in suburban developments, and in the press or wherever one turns.

Now, I would like to discuss my beliefs about what is needed to get this country back on the right track. I want no illusions about my credentials. I am not an educator. I am a reporter who has been sitting in the Washington amphitheater and watching this event transpire. My ideas come from a dozen years of observation of the President, power, the nation.

I will oversimplify and ask forgiveness for this ahead of time because this is not a simple time nor is it a simple problem. But let us start with some basic points.

We need open minds. If there was ever a basic tenet of education, it is that. Yet, we have passed through a decade of narrowness and confining anger. We need people who understand that there are two sides—or four or six sides—to every question. We need students who can see that almost any human endeavor can be done a dozen or a hundred ways and nobody has the ultimate answer.

We must raise up a generation that will learn again the importance of listening. Those men in the Watergate tragedy listened to no one, heard nothing. As an observer of a dozen peace marches in Washington, let me also point out that the street people of a few years ago exceeded them in their false arrogance and self-rectitude and rigid concepts of this world and how it operates. We of the press have an abysmal record, too.

If somehow you teachers can convey the urgency and necessity in being truly open-minded again in your classrooms, I'll come back for a refresher course. We all need it. Especially those young people who will be coming to Washington in another 10 years or so.

We need good manners. As I travel this world, I am constantly struck by how every great event reduces to small human increments. Watergate did not suddenly become a full-blown crisis. It came an inch at a time. One small discourtesy was added to one tiny ill-considered act. Then a minor thoughtlessness and disregard of another person was compounded and when it was all piled up, we had disaster.

I am not talking about the etiquette you learn in books. I mean just the day-to-day relations between mankind. They boil down to thinking of others before yourself and to considering the consequences of every act you commit.

We need decency. That is just a larger view of good manners; it takes everyday acts and makes them into a philosophy. No decent man in or out of this government would suggest that another man, largely innocent, should be left to hang and twist slowly, slowly in the wind.

We need compassion. That, too, is related to good manners and decency. It is simply the act of sensing and understanding the problems of others, of knowing that life is often unfair, as John Kennedy observed. Thus, as one exults in his own success, there should always be the realization that for reasons few, if any of us, understand, we were given the health, the intelligence, the heritage, and the opportunities we have and that there are others who were not so blessed.

We need humor. Life is serious, particularly in these times. But humor goes deeper than laughter or wisecracks. It is rooted in an understanding of our own shortcomings, in the knowledge that while we move through this world according to our convictions, we could be wrong, we often are ridiculous, and as often as not we need to share with those around us the absurdity of many human conditions.

We need honesty. What is right and what is wrong—what is

If somehow teachers can convey the urgency and necessity of being truly open-minded again in their classrooms, I'll come back for a refresher course.

truth—will be argued as long as man is on earth. But this is not as vague a concept as some would have us believe.

The government has a right to lie, a member of John Kennedy's administration insisted. What nonsense! Not only does the government not have a right to lie, but in every situation that I have witnessed in 16 years in Washington, from top to bottom, lying has produced tragedy. You name it—the Bay of Pigs, the U-2 incident, Vietnam, Watergate. Lying is bad manners, bad politics, bad government, bad morals.

I have been living with and around some of those lesser Watergate figures these past months. The ones who lied went through hell until they told the truth. So let us add to the lessons: Lying is no fun.

We need openness. We have gone through an orgy of secrecy and secretiveness that has been poisonous. We need to recapture the joy of the open give-and-take of ideas.

We need people who can talk with one another about their deepest fears, about their visions. It used to be that way in the White House. Then we entered this season of fear. Men couldn't say what was on their minds. They couldn't proclaim, "I don't agree."

We need courage. Watergate was a lesson in timidity. Men wouldn't say no. Men went along when they knew better. Some place in those classrooms you need to get it across to your students that they must stand for what they believe. There is no higher order than being true to oneself and proclaiming it. (Put it in Hemingway's terms: grace under pressure.) Courage is rooted in self-confidence and all the other things I have mentioned.

We need purpose. What further lesson must we have to see that our mad pursuit of larger cars and more homes and unending consumption of our resources cannot bring the happiness and tranquility we search for. Surely that lesson needs to be lodged with greater force than ever in the minds of your students.

I do not deprecate the American way of life based on good machines and good living. But we face a future of scarcity and adjustment. If there is not some realization soon that there is a higher purpose than mere possessions, then we are going to plunge deeper into despair.

We simply cannot go on wasting our planet and ourselves and survive. What really matters? It is personal achievement. It is the pursuit of excellence. It is the understanding that now, more than ever before, the ultimate judgment of our lives is going to depend less and less on our bank accounts and our clothes.

Our national mission remains as it started—liberty, justice, and a brotherhood of mankind. There is, I submit, not a bit more satisfaction (in the final analysis) in speaking eloquently before the United Nations than doing the same thing before the local PTA. (I go back to Richard Nixon's first inaugural address in which he called for "those small splendid efforts that make headlines in the neighborhood newspaper instead of the national journal.")

As I said earlier, I am no educator. Therefore, my technical observations may be faulty. But allow me one. The schools and the educators have been involved in an orgy of building and experimenting. It is all worthy. It is all needed. But I believe that now we should begin to turn more and more to the more difficult tasks of human responses.

These are matters of the heart and soul as well as the mind. They take more time and energy. They produce more disappointments and anguish. Yet, they are basic to our concerns now. They are the things that we find laid out so beautifully and clearly in the Bible or the Koran or the Talmud. They are in the Chinese philosophers, the Magna Carta, the Constitution of the United States. Ben Franklin wrote about them and so has Mao Tse-tung. But in our civilization of supersonic aircraft and spray cans we have drifted perceptibly away from them. Now is a good time to correct our course. □

Mr. Sidey spoke on this topic at greater length in a recent address before the Iowa State Education Association. A cassette tape featuring six five-minute presentations by Mr. Sidey on "The Changing Role of the Presidency" can be purchased for $1 by writing to Bill Sherman, ISEA, 4025 Tonawanda Drive, Des Moines, Iowa 50312. Payment by check made out to ISEA must accompany all orders.

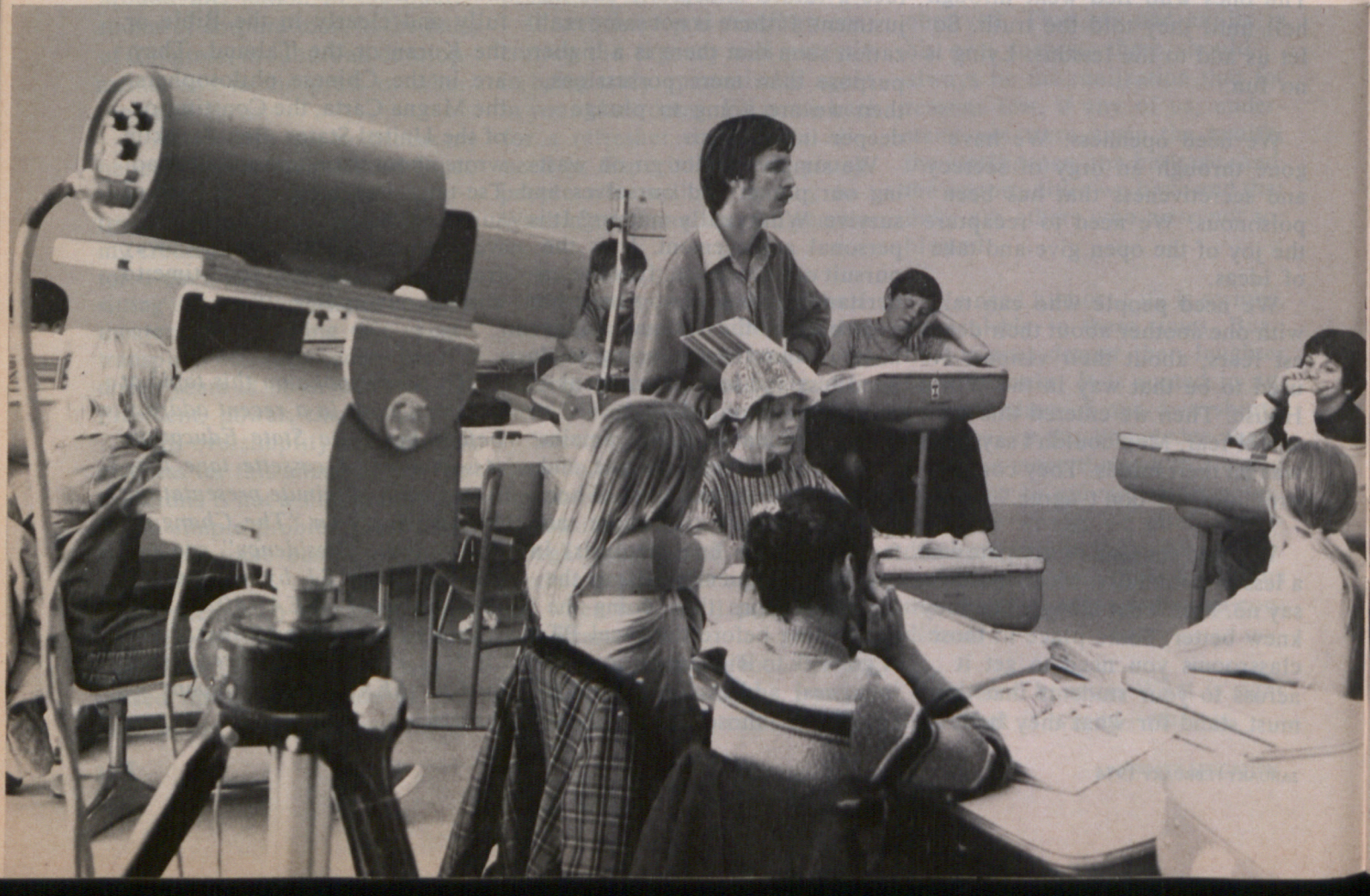
Modifying Pupil Self-Concept and Behavior

By GIROLAMA GARNER
Teacher of a Combination Fifth and Sixth Grade, Hudlow Elementary School, Tucson, Arizona.

Nearly two centuries ago, when Burns wrote, "Oh wad some power the giftie gie us to see oursels as others see us," he could not have foreseen that the modern electronic equipment of this century could make this possibility a reality.

In recent years, much research that examines teacher behavior in teacher-pupil interaction has involved electronic equipment and has described and evaluated teacher behavior as it relates to educational outcomes. Nearly all will agree that the quality of classroom instruction needs to improve and that use of audio and

Pupils reacting with the teacher during a videotaping session.



video feedback enables teachers to determine their effectiveness and thus become accountable for their teaching behavior.

What about the role of the pupils in this teacher-pupil interaction process? Should they become aware of and accountable for their behavior during this complex educational process called learning? If they had the opportunity to view and analyze their behavior and that of others in a structured program, would it be feasible to make them responsible for modification of their behavior?

In search of answers to these and other questions, my 1970-71 class of fifth and sixth graders at Hudlow Elementary School and I developed a tool that would enable them to describe and analyze objectively their classroom behavior.

The pupils decided that during periods of classroom interaction, they were either talking or listening. They listed seven types of talking behavior: (a) answering a teacher's question, (b) answering a pupil's question, (c) asking a question, (d) offering additional information, (e) making an irrelevant contribution, (f) interrupting to make a relevant comment, and (g) interrupting to make an irrelevant comment.

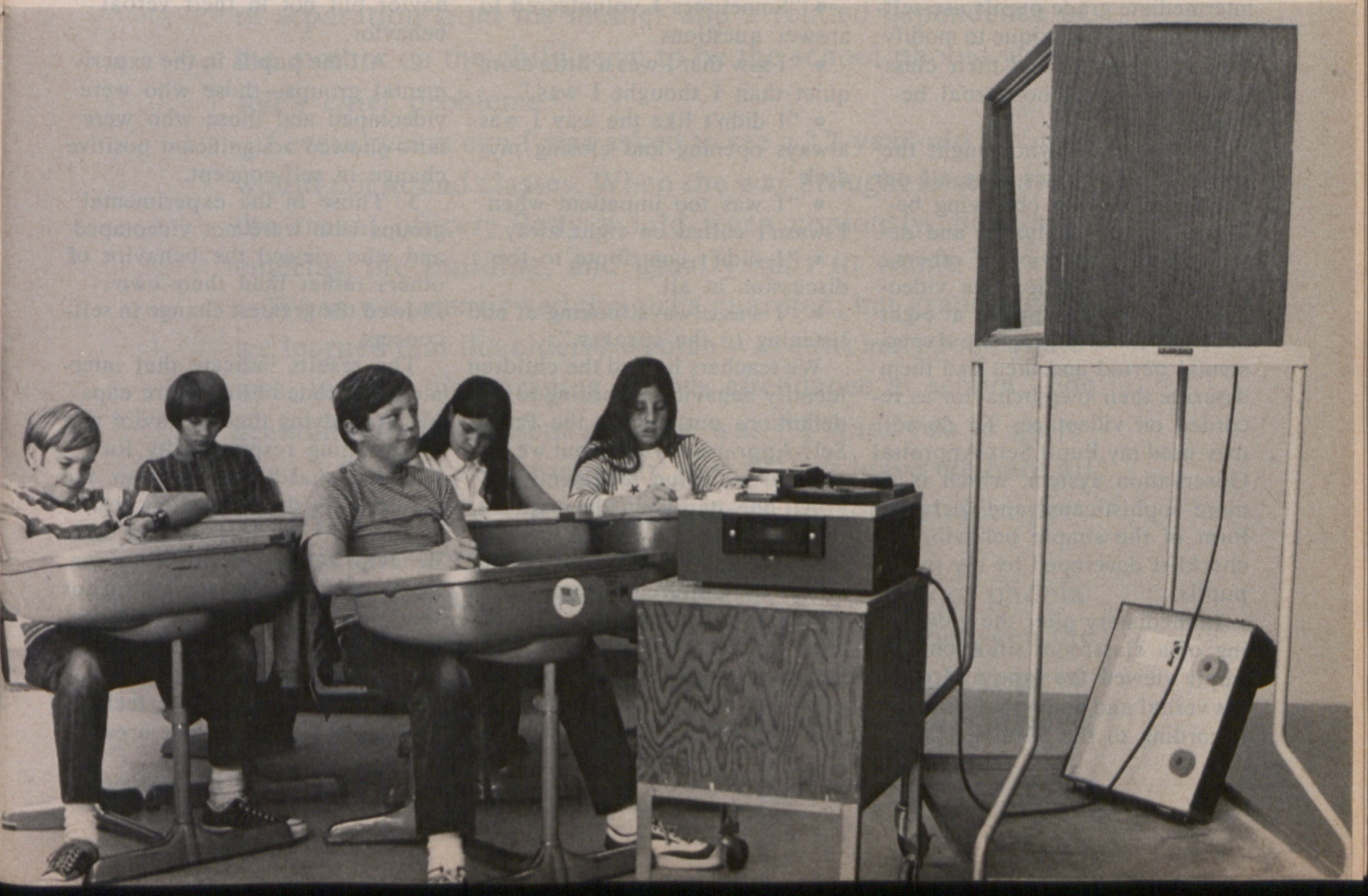
The children defined three types of listening behavior: (a) being attentive (looking at the speaker and thinking about what he is saying); (b) being inattentive (daydreaming and not looking at the speaker); and (c) being disruptive (yawning audibly, fidgeting, and so on).

Then the class was divided into three groups, each of which participated in a microteaching situation that was recorded on videotape.

Each child had the chance to view the replay of all three videotapes as well as the opportunity to code his own behavior or that of one of his classmates according to the checklist of behaviors the class had developed. For coding purposes, a superimposed beep sounded every 10 seconds on the tape. Coding consisted of checking appropriate behavior at each beep.

After the coding sessions, the children discussed their behavior, and I made no value judgments during these discussions. Pupils

Pupils viewing and coding their behavior as recorded on videotape.



All the pupils in the experimental groups showed a significant positive change in self-concept.

made comments like the following about their behavior:

- "I think John added a lot to the discussion."
- "I didn't talk at all."
- "I didn't realize that I constantly twist my hair."
- "Chewing on my pencil sure looks crummy."

The following school year, I directed a research study that involved six experimental classes and six control classes of fourth, fifth, and sixth graders at Hudlow and Kellond Elementary Schools in Tucson.

The purpose of the study was to explore the effectiveness of two approaches designed to help intermediate grade pupils use self-appraisal as a technique to modify their self-concept and their classroom verbal and nonverbal behavior.

The six of us who taught the experimental classes gave all our pupils training in observing behavior and in analyzing and describing the behavior of others. However, in addition, we videotaped some of the pupils at eight different times during the experimental period and then had them describe their own behavior as recorded on videotape. To do so, they used my Pupil Self-Appraisal Observation System, which is a more sophisticated and inclusive form of the simple behavior checklist developed by my former pupils.

Immediately after the videotaping of a classroom situation, the pupil viewed the tape and coded his verbal and nonverbal behavior according to the System. (Coding consists of checking the appropriate verbal or nonverbal behavior category at 10-second intervals on a tally sheet which provides the pupil with objective feedback about his classroom performance. By examining the profile of his behavior as recorded on the sheet, the pupil becomes aware of his behavior and may wish to modify it. The procedure lets him assume responsibility for altering his behavior.)

After coding the videotapes, the boys and girls wrote about kinds of behavior they liked or disliked in themselves and commented on what they might do to change the behavior they disliked. Some of the written comments follow:

- "Sometimes I volunteered to answer questions."
- "I saw that I was a little more quiet than I thought I was."
- "I didn't like the way I was always opening and closing my desk."
- "I was too impatient when I wasn't called on right away."
- "I didn't contribute to the discussion at all."
- "I was always looking at and listening to the speaker."

We teachers helped the children identify behavior according to the definitions outlined in the Pupil Self-Appraisal System, but we expressed no value judgments.

All the pupils in the experimental groups also took part in weekly classroom sessions during which the children became aware of classroom interaction through viewing videotapes and films; role playing; and discussing topics, such as "How We Affect Others" and "Self-Discipline."

Professional literature reveals that: (a) educators agree that a positive or good self-concept is definitely related to school success and (b) until recently, elementary pupils have had few opportunities for self-assessment, since, traditionally, the teacher is the person who makes appraisals.

I tested several hypotheses designed to examine changes in self-concept and in verbal and nonverbal classroom behavior during the study. The study revealed the following results:

1. Pupils in the experimental groups who viewed themselves on videotape and who coded their own behavior showed a significant difference in their nonverbal behavior but not in their verbal behavior.

2. All the pupils in the experimental groups—those who were videotaped and those who were not—showed a significant positive change in self-concept.

3. Those in the experimental groups who were not videotaped and who viewed the behavior of others rather than their own showed the greatest change in self-concept.

The results indicate that intermediate grade children are capable of studying their behavior and of assuming responsibility for changing that behavior. Also, the results show that if teachers desire to improve the self-concept and behavior of their pupils, they can do so by following a program for that purpose. Perhaps in-service programs could help teachers, counselors, and administrators learn to use appropriate techniques in this important area. □

The School Phobic Child

By MARILYN WHITESIDE
Psychologist for the Boys and Girls Aid Society of Oregon, Portland.

In general, psychologists agree that the problem of school phobia [a traumatic aversion to school] is distinct from the disorder ordinarily called truancy. Some think its incidence is growing; others suspect that the apparent increase in cases is because physicians and school authorities are more likely now than formerly to recognize the condition and to refer youngsters for help.[1]

Notions concerning the cause of the disturbance are diverse. Some believe it involves anxiety about a school-specific situation. According to other authorities, the child's fear of separation from his mother and a related dependence of the mother on the child seem to be the school phobic youngster's chief problems.[2]

Several years ago I was asked to see a 12-year-old girl who would not attend classes. When she was brought to school by the truant officer, Betty would weep copiously, balk at entering the building, and usually start to vomit.

When we interviewed the girl's guardian, her grandmother, we learned that the elderly woman was extremely lonely and was, in fact, discouraging Betty's attendance at school. The grandmother's apparent message was: "I want you to go to class." But her covert entreaty was: "Don't leave me here all day by myself." When we found diversion for the older person, Betty's problem was solved.

One particularly provocative theory about school phobia has a developmental focus. The thought is that, between the infant's confused object world and the child's normal stage of separating from his mother, there is a transition period when

The onset of school phobia is often gradual, starting with the child's increased reluctance to attend class and culminating in downright rejection of school. ▶

objects do not truly belong to either the youngster's inner or outer world.

Apparently the school phobic youngster regresses to this period and treats his parents and sometimes siblings, peers, and teachers with considerable ambivalence, specializing in manipulation and control. Such regression may be caused by parents who, because of their own immaturity, are ambivalent (with animosity predominant) or who, through emotional withdrawal, fail to give their child the opportunity to test and extend his feelings of love and hostility.[3]

Another developmental theory is that the child, in order to be fully integrated into group life, must be able to transfer his psychic energies from his parents to the larger community. If at about the age of four or five the youngster does not resolve his infantile sexual conflicts and relate appropriately to both parents, difficulties in adaptation ensue.

The hostile side of the unresolved relationship may assume frightening proportions when the anxiety-ridden child is away from his parents, and the young person may cling frantically to the adult(s) involved in order to protect the mother and/or the father from his own death and aggression fantasies.[4]

"Some degree of chronic aversion from school" has been found in nearly one in five normal London primary schoolchildren.[5] Teachers who see a youngster displaying symptoms consistent with school phobia should refer him for diagnosis and counseling. Consultation with the therapist or counselor may help the teacher identify strategies that will help the child feel more comfortable in the classroom.

In a book about a residential school for emotionally disturbed children, Bruno Bettelheim relates the story of a teacher who allowed a boy with school phobia complete freedom to be inside or outside the classroom, in order to help him overcome his fear of being held captive.[6] While such treatment may not be feasible (or necessary) in a regular classroom, there is much that teachers can do to make school a less threatening place, for it is in school that a child most frequently experiences opportunities for social and academic success—or failure.

Opinions differ as to whether the child with school phobia is more likely than other children to *undervalue* himself, or whether, to the contrary, he *overvalues* his capacities, staying away from school to keep his unrealistic self-image from being shattered. The latter explanation is the conclusion of one American study.[7]

British psychologists tested this hypothesis by comparing the self-evaluations of school phobic children in a clinic with the self-esteem of similar (disturbed) children not having a school aversion. They found no significant differences, although the general tendency of youngsters with school phobia was to show a lower self-evaluation.[8]

Perhaps the discrepancy in findings is caused by the fact that a poor self-concept may masquerade as exaggerted self-confidence, making the child who actually places relatively little value on himself appear to be overly self-confident. In any case, school phobic youngsters are particularly vulnerable to the judgments of their teachers and classmates.

If a child's assessment of how he compares with his peers turns out to be too low—or too high—the teacher may be able to help him make a realistic evaluation of his capabilities and provide opportunities for him to enjoy success in his schoolwork. The teacher should be aware of the fact that for many of these anxious children, even an apparently innocuous incident may precipitate an emotional crisis. For example, Tim, a perfectionist and a loner, developed

Some say that the child's fear of separation from his mother and a related dependence of the mother on the child seem to be the school phobic youngster's chief problems.

school phobia when, in the midst of reciting poetry, he forgot a line and was laughed at by some of the other children.

In one British study,[9] children were classified as school phobic if they exhibited all of the following symptoms:

1. Severe difficulty while attending school
2. Profound emotional upsets related to the prospect of attending school
3. A tendency to stay at home during school hours with their parents' knowledge
4. Absence of significant antisocial disorders.

Other British findings suggest that phobic children prior to the onset of symptoms display at least average intelligence and average school achievement. Peak onset in Great Britain occurs when the children are between 11 and 13 years of age,[10] and is somewhat earlier in the United States.[11]

The 50 British school phobic children in one study had a mean age of 11.8 years, while the mean age of their mothers was 43.8 years and of their fathers, 47 years.[12] The parents seem older than might, on chance, be expected, which may account in part for the fact that phobic youngsters are ordinarily passive, dependent, and overprotected.

The phobic child may be anxious and timid away from home but willful and controlling within the home. Families of these youngsters tend to be neurotic,[13] and the mothers often report a poorly resolved dependency relationship with their own mothers.[14]

School refusal sometimes begins quite suddenly, usually on a Monday morning, at the beginning of a new school term, or on the day immediately following an illness. More often, however, onset is gradual, starting with the child's increased reluctance to attend class and culminating in his downright rejection of school.

Frequently, the major symptom is preceded by general irritability, weeping, restless sleep, and complaints of nausea and abdominal pain. When the children are pressured to return to classes, they react with such tension symptoms as pallor, tremulousness, and perspiration.

In the case of one boy with school phobia, psychologists found that his school avoidance behavior was motivated by two forces: (a) his fear of the school situation and (b) the effect of secondary reinforcers—i.e., special attentions—that accompanied his phobic reactions.

To help him achieve normal attendance, the psychologists began a program of systematic desensitization to school. Accompanied—even into the classroom—by a therapist, the boy spent increasingly longer parts of the day in school.

When he showed great anxiety, the therapist verbally associated school with pleasant, relaxed activities, such as a trip to Disneyland. When he displayed less anxiety, the therapist ignored his avoidance behavior but rewarded (with a comic book, for example) the boy's independent participation in school activities.

At the same time, the therapist gradually phased himself out—first, by going to another room in the school, then, by spending increasingly longer portions of the day away from the building altogether. After four-and-a-half months, the youngster was able to attend school by himself.[15]

A counselor reports the case of a phobic boy who, after play therapy and personal interviews, was taken by his therapist to explore the school buildings. À la Coué, the lad also helped to formulate a statement and was encouraged to quote it frequently: "My name is Richard B. I am good-looking. I am fast. I am

as smart and brave as other boys." Richard, when he returned to his classes, was allowed to phone his mother several times a day to reassure himself that she was not ill. At the end of five months, he was judged by school personnel to be emotionally stable.[16]

There appears to be a connection between a child's unwillingness to accept treatment and the severity of his problem. Some psychologists suggest that school phobia be considered an emergency in clinical practice, because delay of therapy seems to result in persistence of the symptoms, sometimes for months and even years.[17] On the other hand, some school phobia can probably be handled at home, when parents are insightful and not prone to be overprotective.

Ordinarily, the phobic adolescent has a graver problem than does a younger person. When a teenager's fear of school becomes so powerful that it overrides his need for conformity and for independence from his family, this implies a "greater degree of illness than it does in the younger child who is normally more dependent."[18] Treatment, however, may be less difficult in some ways for the adolescent than it is for a little child.[19]

Ideally, the entire family of a phobic child should seek psychological help. Unfortunately, once the child's return to school is achieved, some parents lose interest in further investigation of the problem.[20]

It is important, finally, to underscore the fact that not all school refusal should be categorized as emotional illness. In some instances, such behavior may be an expression of the child's desperate need to break away from the unhealthy conformity into which he has been forced. A youngster locked into a rigid mold, whether by his family or by his school, may conclude that the only way to assert his independence is through negativism. And he may be right. □

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The Hyperactive Child

By BEVERLY J. SMALL
Supervisor, Supplementary Education, Montgomery County (Maryland) Public Schools.

The many educators throughout the country who work with hyperactive children need to understand hyperkinesis (sometimes called the hyperkinetic syndrome), a complex disorder that afflicts approximately 10 percent of all elementary school age children.[1] This figure fluctuates depending on the area and the community, and the condition disappears for many afflicted children when they reach adolescence.

A great deal of research as well as theoretical speculation has been focused on the hyperactive child. Medical professionals attribute hyperactivity to any of the following: prenatal disturbances, abnormalities of the birth process, injuries or illnesses occurring in early childhood, or a deficit in the balance of chemical activity in the brain.

Hart Peterson, associate professor of neurology and pediatrics at New York Hospital, Cornell Medical Center, explains the hyperactive child as being "bombarded by sights and sounds all his waking hours but, unlike normal children, he is unable to sort them out and give priority to any single one. As he sits at his desk, he hears the teacher talking, a classmate whispering, a distant phone ringing, birds singing, a car going down the street, an airplane flying overhead, and they all come through with equal importance. He wants to investigate all of them, immediately."[2]

At school and at home, this child seems to be in perpetual motion, tapping his feet, moving from side to side, shuffling his feet, jumping from one self-motivated activity to another.

As educators, we can focus on the basic educational needs of the hyperactive child and provide a structured educational environment and a viable behavior management program for him. We can also give his parents the necessary support and counseling so that they can supplement the school's educational behavior management program with him at home.

We must not overlook the fact that factors other than those previously cited may be contributing to hyperactivity in children. For example, hunger or an inappropriate diet can be a contributing factor. Research on a Head Start population by Nancy Munro indicated that high amounts of refined carbohydrates and low amounts of meat were associated with hyperactivity.[3] Ben F. Feingold, M.D., chief-emeritus of the Department of Allergy of the Kaiser-Permanente Medical Center in San Francisco, indicates that his studies show a strong link between hyperactivity in children and the consumption of artificial flavors and colors used in food processing. Poor teaching and overcrowded classrooms can also be contributing factors.

Realistically, we should first look at our teaching strategies to see if we are meeting the needs of this child. Have we provided the structure he needs so desperately in order to organize himself? It is imperative that the child know exactly what is expected of him. A daily schedule placed on the board or on his desk will help him organize his day.

He requires short assignments that are interesting and a schedule that provides for physical movement with direction and specific purpose. For example, the teacher could designate 15 minutes in the afternoon as activity period, allowing each pupil to choose from a variety of movement activities. The hyperactive child might enjoy and profit from such a period if the teacher assists him with his chosen activity.

The teacher can also provide opportunities for pupils to move about by setting up individual centers around the room for specific learning activities. Language Masters, tapes, or other equipment or materials can provide individual instruction and programming. If the children understand exactly where they are to be at a given time and what they are to do, they will

probably benefit from such a classroom setup.

The teacher's verbal directions should be short and explicit, since many children have difficulty remembering what they are told and experience great frustration when they receive lengthy verbal directions. To avoid repeating himself, the teacher can supplement his verbal directions with written ones on the chalkboard or in individual notes to children.

The hyperactive child needs to be taught how to organize his desk and his belongings. If he knows exactly where his books, notebook, pencils, and erasers are, he will have less difficulty in starting his work. A notebook organized by subject and marked so that he can easily find the place for partially completed papers or assignments may be of help to him—and to other pupils in the class. The hyperactive child needs consistent help, particularly at first, in keeping his desk and notebook organized, but eventually he will be able to handle these on his own.

A stimulus-free study area in a quiet area of the classroom can be a boon to a hyperactive child. This may consist of a carrel located in an appropriate area and available for children who feel they need to use it.

The hyperactive child's brief attention span presents a constant problem and challenge to teachers. In addition to the strategy of assigning short, specific tasks, we must try to help the child increase his attention span. One way this can be accomplished is through a carefully planned program of behavior modification, a method of teaching through reinforcement or reward.

Glorianne Wittes and Norma Radin have developed a practical handbook for teachers and parents using the reinforcement approach, which explains behavior modification principles and suggests specific systematic programs and activities.[4] Teachers who wish to make use of behavior modification techniques should obtain parental permission before initiating them.

Close communication between school and home is vital to the success of any program involving the hyperactive child. It makes sense for the child to have a consistent daily routine at home—as well as at school. However, it is important for teachers and parents to show him *how* to do things and not just tell him *what* to do.

Since the hyperactive child functions best in a routine, parents might establish a special time for homework and assign him a specific area in the house as his homework nook. They might also help him to remember to put his books and homework in a set place in the evening so he will have them handy when he is ready to leave for school in the morning.

The hyperactive child needs help in structuring behavior boundaries and guidance in establishing what is acceptable and what is not. Parents can help by setting guidelines for this child. Alex and Maryl Bannatyne have developed a chart for home behavior management based on a point system and a guide for parents on how to use the chart effectively.[5]

Carefully planned routines at school and at home will help eliminate many frustrating experiences for child, family members, and teachers. They will also provide the child with a frame of reference in which he can deal with himself.

For some hyperkinetic children, efforts of the sort just discussed will not be enough. Although the matter is still highly controversial, doctors sometimes prescribe stimulant drugs or other medication for these youngsters. The drugs do not cure the condition, but they may make it possible for these youngsters to attend better and function more efficiently and effectively.

In 1971, the Conference on the Use of Stimulant Drugs in the Treatment of Behaviorally Disturbed Young School Children, sponsored by the Department of Health, Education, and

Welfare, reported:

Stimulant medications are beneficial in only about one-half to two-thirds of the cases in which trials of the drugs are warranted. The stimulant drugs are considered to be the first and least complicated of the medicines to be tried. Other medications—the so-called tranquilizers and antidepressants—are generally reserved for a smaller group of patients. Without specialized medical therapy, the consequences for these children of their failure to manage—even in an optimal environment—are clearly very severe. In such cases, the aim is not to "solve problems with drugs," but to put the severely handicapped child in a position to interact with his environment to the extent that this condition permits. . . .

When the medication is effective, the child can modulate and organize his activities in the direction he wishes. The stimulant does not slow down or suppress the hyperkinetic child. . . . [It] appears to mobilize him and to increase [his] abilities to focus on meaningful stimuli and to organize his bodily movements more purposefully.[6]

But whether the hyperkinetic child is on medication or not, we as educators must ask ourselves: Are we providing suitable opportunities for him and are we using appropriate strategies in working with him? □

The hyperactive child requires short assignments that are interesting and a schedule that provides for physical movement with direction and specific purpose.

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The Obese Child

By JEAN MAYER
Professor of Nutrition, Harvard University School of Public Health, and Author of Overweight: Causes, Cost, and Control, © *Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1968 and* Human Nutrition: Its Physiological, Medical, and Social Aspects, *Charles C. Thomas, publisher, 1972.*

Americans are getting fatter and taller—and they are getting fatter faster than they are getting taller. In the Boston area, for example, close to 20 percent of youngsters graduating from high school are fatter than they should (or want to) be. Obesity in adolescence is the subject of a chapter in my book, *Overweight: Causes, Cost, and Control.* What I said in that chapter is briefly digested here.

Adolescent obesity differs in several ways from obesity in other age groups. Adolescents, even the healthiest of them, bring to all their problems, including such a problem as obesity, the serious circumstance (in our culture anyway) of just being adolescents.

The obese adolescent is fair game to such well-meant oppressions as those who surround him wish to inflict on him. And frequently, we train the obese adolescent to inflict similar oppressions on himself.

In dealing with obese youngsters, doctors, parents, and teachers must remember that obesity is not a moral issue to be met with platitudes and punishment. It is a medical problem, very complex and as yet imperfectly understood.

We who are involved in studying obesity believe we know more about appetite than we did a few short years ago, but we still know less than we need to. Appetite remains, as far as our understanding goes, a complex mechanism involving metabolic, gastric, hypothalamic, and cortical factors. It can be disturbed by many physiological and psychological elements which may have nothing in common except creation of a positive energy balance—a situation where the individual consumes more calories than he expends.

To equate obesity with gluttony and treat the adolescent with an inspirational harangue and a diet sheet is a complete mistake. What's more, such a reaction may seriously harm the youngster by reinforcing feelings of guilt already induced by a censorious environment.

Obese adolescents are too often a sadly put-upon minority. Its members live lives of mild-to-severe anguish and self-contempt, for which the rest of us, in differing degrees, are responsible.

The obese come in the standard distribution of American colors, cultural levels, and economic classes, and there are hundreds of thousands of them. They not only look different from their slender siblings, but they behave differently. They are less happy and less hopeful, for the improvements promised to other abused minorities are not, with any conviction, presented to them.

Many of them, despite their best efforts and ours, are going to remain fat. If a person starts life skinny, he tends to stay skinny. Studies conducted by Dr. Hedwig Rose and myself on newborn babies and infants under two suggest that fat babies eat no more, and often less, than thin ones. The latter tend to be more active, however. The same is true of young children and adolescents.

Obese adolescents are not necessarily going to change—but something that *can* change is our attitude toward them. And a happy by-product of that change would be a cheerful improvement in their attitude toward themselves.

When my colleagues and I were attempting to discover personality traits in obese adolescent girls that might help us to understand factors making them become obese in the first place, we discovered something else: the striking similarity between the characteristic psychological traits of these obese adolescent girls and those of

Probably no single factor is more frequently responsible for development of obesity in adolescents than lack of physical exercise.

ethnic and racial minorities attributable to their status as victims of prejudice. This strengthened our impression that such traits were more likely the result than the cause of obesity.

The girls we studied, ranging in age from 13 to 17, were attending summer camps on Cape Cod. A hundred obese girls came from a reducing camp; 65 nonobese girls, from a nearby camp which existed merely to fulfill the expected functions of a summer camp for girls.

Lenore Monello, a psychologist, and I gave three projective tests to all the girls. In a word association test, the girls wrote any three words coming to mind in response to words such as *outdoors, sugar, boring, picnic, dates,* and *camp.* The obese girls responded with a larger number of words such as *calories, diet, reducing, fattening,* and *overweight* than did the nonobese. The frequent and spontaneous weight references indicate a preoccupation with overweight similar to the constant preoccupation with status found among members of ethnic and racial minorities.

We also gave the girls a sentence-completion test and a "picture story" test. The obese girls responded to them with answers that demonstrated their passivity; the nonobese, with answers demonstrating their active natures. In this context, passivity has been shown to be the expression of lack of self-assertiveness and initiative, whereas activity indicates the presence of these traits.

Previous investigators have interpreted this type of response from the obese as an expression of dependency on their families that was present prior to onset of their obesity and continued through its development. Those of us concerned with this testing feel, however, that this passivity is perhaps better interpreted as an effect of social pressure.

Interpreting personality traits observed among obese adolescents as a *result* of their obesity rather than as a *cause* seems even more valid when one remembers that in the United States obesity is considered unaesthetic, undesirable, unhealthy, morally wrong, and ridiculous.

Our society is becoming more and more punitive about the obese. A study Helen Canning and I conducted yields evidence that there is even some discrimination (probably unconscious) against the obese on the part of college admissions offices. At equal grades, one-third more nonobese girls and two-thirds more nonobese boys were admitted into the college of their choice than were obese girls and boys.

I suspect furthermore that many obese adolescents in secondary schools fail to orient themselves to college aspirations. I attribute this in part to the lower self-esteem of the obese young and also to the fact that they believe they will be excluded from the fulfilling activities which are so much a part of college life.

The pressures of society on the obese, because of their obesity, are so enormous that they have to be understood before the impact of heredity, lack of exercise, and faulty food habits on the obese can be appreciated. This is, of course, not to say that the general causes of obesity are not operating in adolescents. But at a time when awareness of the opposite sex and of one's own body is at its highest, obesity is a particularly grave misfortune.

To have genes predisposing one to obesity, to live in a society where one does not have to exercise if he doesn't want to, and where food is freely available is a catastrophe at the age where being popular is almost a duty.

We know obesity runs in families, involving genetic as well as environmental factors. But we don't know how much of the tendency toward obesity in a particular case is due to inherited factors and how much the result of a homely tradition of piling high the festive board. Studies in Massachusetts high schools have shown that less than 10 percent of the children of parents of normal weight are obese. But the proportion rises to 40 percent if one

parent is obese and to 80 percent if both parents are.

Despite the emphasis on the importance of underactivity as a contribution to obesity which my associates and I have documented in so many hundreds of youngsters in so many situations, overeating is the layman's usual explanation of the phenomenon in adolescents.

Often this is only technically true. To gain in weight and bulk, the adolescent must indeed consume more food than he uses up in activity. But this is not what is usually meant by the allegation of overeating. Behind the charge there is the assumption that most adolescents—the thin ones and the fat—are physically busy to about the same degree.

The difference between the two groups is attributed to the seemingly obvious "fact" that the bulkier ones must just be eating more. This persisting notion is perhaps the most wrong-minded in the whole dismal popular folklore about the adolescent obese.

Probably no single factor is more frequently responsible for development of obesity in adolescents than lack of physical exercise. In a recent article in *Family Health,* I discussed how the life-style of children today discourages physical activity.

For example, a number of school systems have dropped the requirement for even the sketchy physical exercise program once offered. If children don't ride a school bus, mother usually drives them to school, or if the youngsters are old enough, they will drive themselves. In some urban schools, with land at a high premium, schools have converted playground areas into student parking lots.

The effect of the elimination of walking is compounded by the hours children spend watching TV. Educators worry about the results of exposing children's impressionable minds to hours of mediocre television fare; I also worry about the effect on their bodies.

A recent foundation study shows that preschool children watch TV an average of five hours a day. Our studies show that much of this viewing time has replaced playing time—active time indoors and out-of-doors. This drastic curtailment of physical activity shows up in lack of fitness and overweight.

Energy balance is determined as much by caloric output as by caloric intake. The range of daily caloric output in adolescent boys may go from 2,800 calories for the extremely inactive to over 6,000 for athletic young men engaged in strenuous sports.

Repeated studies have shown that the great majority of obese teenagers eat less than the average nonobese teenager of the same sex and that it is the inactivity of the former that permits excessive fat deposition.

In a laborious study that Beverly Hullen, Robert Reed, and I conducted, we compared the physical activity of groups in the two Massachusetts camps while they were engaged in the same physical activity. We rigged up a special camera so as to take three-second shots every three minutes. We ended up with about 30,000 short motion pictures of girls playing volleyball, swimming, and playing tennis. Since we knew their weight, we could analyze the motions depicted in each sequence and translate them into caloric equivalents.

We found that most of the obese subjects expended almost no energy in the activity. In fact, in 65 percent of the tennis sequences, in 80 percent of the volleyball ones, and in an even higher proportion of the swimming sequences, the overweight girls were essentially motionless.

In a program conducted by our research group in a large public school system and which comprised a pediatrician, two psychologists, a physical anthropologist, a dietician, and a number of physical educators, several hundred obese children and adolescents lost weight and kept it off for several years while the program was in effect. *(Continued)*

This was achieved essentially through stepped-up daily physical activity, although they were also given thorough instruction in nutrition and psychological support, ranging from individual counseling to advice on how to dress, walk, and improve their appearance. They were given daily physical education in special classes and directed as to exercising on their own during weekends and holidays.

The great majority improved steadily under this regimen, particularly those who were taken in hand in the first elementary grades. Thus, the basic rule for obese adolescents who wish to lose weight might well be: Increase physical activity.

In considering diets for adolescents, the first concern should be nutritional adequacy and balance. No other age group is more subject to fads. No other, with the possible exception of the very aged, is so easily victimized by quackery. No young person should be on a reducing diet unless a physician, dietician, or nutritional authority has planned it specifically for him.

At the Adolescent's Clinic of the Children's Medical Center in Boston, we have seen many adolescent girls who on their own initiative or that of some misguided adult went on a reducing diet so low in protein and iron that it resulted in anemia. Adolescents also avoid whole classes of food, some of them essential to health, because of misconceptions about their effects on skin appearance and weight. Educators can help prevent such excesses by making sure teenagers have sound basic knowledge about nutrition.

Children and adolescents should know that calories do count, but that they can eat moderate amounts of foods they like without gaining weight. The basic ingredient of a dish, in many cases, is not the main contribution to calories. So it is possible to eat favorite foods—yet cut calories drastically by not loading them with unnecessary fat and sugar. □

The Abused Child

Fear and pain are universal. No one escapes them. Yet some children suffer them needlessly and relentlessly—and at the hands of those who are their supposed protectors and defenders.

Abused children are usually the victims of their caretaker: mother, father, foster parent, mother's lover or boyfriend, older brother or sister, baby-sitter. The abusing adults come from all walks of life and all types of backgrounds.

Abuse of children takes many forms, from neglect of their physical, emotional, and educational needs to sexual abuse to physical harm to child battering. The latter, the most lethal form of abuse, prompts the greatest publicity but probably involves the fewest number of abused children.

Vincent J. Fontana, M.D., medical director of the New York Foundling Hospital and director of pediatrics at St. Vincent's Hospital in New York City and chairman of the City's Task Force on Child Abuse, maintains that the distinction between the forms of abuse are of "little value to the child in need of help." He asks, "Where is the dividing line between neglect and physical abuse?" for he has seen children with lice and ruptured livers, those who have been locked in the closet for days, and those who have been left outside, half naked, in freezing weather.

The actual incidence of abuse to children in the United States is impossible to cite. There are estimates on the numbers of physically abused and battered children, but experts disagree on their accuracy, chiefly because of the underreporting of these incidents—especially among the middle and upper classes.

In a report to the American Medical Association, Dr. Fontana claimed that child abuse had reached "epidemic" proportions and estimated that doctors treated 1.5 million cases of suspected child abuse in 1973. "Statistics strongly suggest that child battering is probably the

most common cause of death in children today, outnumbering deaths caused by any of the infectious diseases, leukemia, and auto accidents," he noted.

Yet, David G. Gil of Brandeis University, who conducted a nationwide study of all legally reported cases of physical abuse, holds that the "quantity and quality of abuse as a serious social problem has been exaggerated." The study, launched in 1965 by Brandeis in cooperation with the U.S. Children's Bureau, found that there are about 6,000 reported cases of physical abuse to children under 18 every year. In a population of 200 million, this number does not "constitute a major social problem," states Dr. Gil. "Even if allowance is made for the gross underreporting of fatalities, physical abuse cannot be considered a major killer and maimer of children," he contends.

While many studies of child abuse indicate that very young children (those under three) are the prime targets of abuse, nearly half of the children reported in the Brandeis study were over five years of age and nearly one-fifth were more than 11 years old. Boys outnumbered girls in every age group under 12, but girls outnumbered boys among teenaged victims.

The 1968 reporting rate for white children was 6.7 per 100,000; the corresponding rate for nonwhite youngsters, 21.0 per 100,000. Thus, nonwhites were overrepresented to a significant extent in this survey.

Dr. Gil points out, however, that some of the overrepresentation may be due to discriminatory attitudes and practices on the part of the reporting sources, or it may reflect a real, higher incidence rate of child abuse among ethnic-minority groups. And this he says is "not unexpected in view of the higher incidence among them of socioeconomic deprivation, fatherless homes, and large families, all of which were found in the present study to be strongly associated with child abuse."

Since, according to the Brandeis study, many abused children are over five, they are of school age. What is the role of the school—if any—in combating and preventing child abuse?

Experts who think the school can play an important role suggest that:

Schools institute child-abuse reporting procedures. All states, the District of Columbia, and most of the outlying areas have passed reporting laws. These vary on such provisions as the professional groups required to report and the penalties for failing to report under the law. However, all states grant immunity from civil or criminal liability to persons reporting abuse cases in good faith.

Kay Drews, in her chapter in *Helping the Battered Child and His Family,* reports the findings of a 1969-70 survey designed to assist in estimating the incidence of child abuse in school-aged children and to determine whether school systems had procedures for handling suspected cases. A questionnaire was sent to half the school systems in the country with a total student enrollment of over 10,000.

Of the 363 systems polled, about 34 percent responded. Many returned several questionnaires filled out by administrative personnel in the central office, teachers, nurses, and principals. One important discrepancy turned up in these multiple responses: 49 percent of the central office personnel said their systems had standard procedures for reporting child abuse, while only 24 percent of principals, teachers, and nurses reported such procedures.

The implications are obvious, says Mrs. Drews, "It seems pointless for the high-level school administrators, who have very little pupil contact, to have knowledge of a reporting procedure if their teachers and principals, who are actually confronted with the abused child, are unaware of such a procedure."

The data indicated a significant incidence of abuse in older children, based on estimates (some questionable) by school personnel, who are of the opinion that approximately 40 per

100,000 school-age children are being physically abused by their parents or guardians.

One system that has had a reporting procedure for a number of years is the Syracuse City School District in New York—a state where school officials must report suspected cases of child abuse. In the January 1970 issue of the *American Journal of Public Health,* C. George Murdock, M.D., then director of Health Services in the system, states that school people reported the following number of cases of suspected abuse for the indicated years: in 1964-65, 18 cases; in 1965-66, 20; in 1966-67, 24; and in 1967-68, 18. Dr. Murdock notes that the children ranged in age from five to 14, with the majority under 10, and that almost all were from lower socioeconomic groups.

Dr. Murdock advises systems which plan to initiate reporting procedures to inform the school staff of the procedures and, particularly in states where reporting is mandatory, dispel their fears about legal involvement and court appearances. They should also counter fears school people may have of further harm to the child if they report his case and encourage them to cooperate fully with the investigatory agency, exchanging information frequently.

New provisions in the New York law now enable school personnel to report maltreated children, a category that includes the neglected, and to attempt to get positive action on these cases. Previously, according to Margaret S. Vercillo, M.D., now director of Health Services, Syracuse schools, school people had limited legal means of trying to aid such children, particularly the neglected ones. The new legislation will hopefully produce more effective reporting and give additional impetus to a variety of excellent supportive programs which the Syracuse system has initiated.

However, Dr. Vercillo cautions, "Many of these children are so disabled and disorganized long before they get to school, it is difficult to help. We must reach a greater number of them and their families earlier. That is our frustration."

Schools abolish corporal punishment. In an article in the April 1969 issue of *American Education,* Dr. Gil states: "A teacher who uses physical force against a child teaches that child and all children in the classroom that physical force is an appropriate means for human interaction. If such children grow into child abusing parents, they are practicing what they were taught in school. Education has developed constructive approaches to motivate children, to create a challenging learning milieu, and to assure the necessary discipline in the classroom and needs no longer to regress to the destructive

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Signs of Possible Abuse

The following may indicate a child's need for protection, according to the Children's Division of the American Humane Association:

- The child is aggressive, disruptive, destructive. His behavior may reflect a hostile or emotionally destructive climate at home, or he may be imitating destructive parental behavior.
- The child is shy, withdrawn, passive, or overly compliant. This child may be as emotionally damaged as the aggressive one. He has internalized his problem; his cry for help is a whisper instead of a shout.
- The child is habitually truant or is chronically tardy without adequate excuse. This behavior points to problems of adjustment—at home, in school, within the child, or in combination.
- The child comes to school much too early and/or hangs around school after dismissal. This child may be seeking to escape from home or he may be "pushed out" in the morning and have no place to go after school because no one supervises or cares for him.
- The child is inadequately dressed for the weather. His clothing is torn, tattered, or dirty. These are all signs of physical neglect, a condition not necessarily related to poverty. It probably reflects a breakdown in household management and in concern for the child.
- The child comes to school without breakfast or goes without lunch. This, too, is often a problem unrelated to poverty.
- The child is always tired and sleeps in class. Such conditions are symptomatic of parental failure to regulate the child's routines or of family problems which disrupt family routines.
- The child appears in need of medical attention, glasses, or dental work.
- The child bears bruises, welts, contusions.
- The child complains of beatings or other maltreatment.
- The parents are aggressive and abusive or apathetic and unresponsive when approached about problems concerning their child.
- Parental behavior as observed by school personnel or as described by the child seems bizarre.
- The parents show little concern about the child. They fail to participate in school activities or do not permit the child to participate.

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approach which is symbolized by corporal punishment."

Many experts would agree with Dr. Gil and suggest further that educators not punish students with suspensions, for some parents are almost certain to abuse their children who are so disciplined. Instead, these observers claim, schools should use more positive methods to correct erring youngsters.

Schools institute education-for-parenthood programs. Perhaps the best preventive measure schools might institute to combat child abuse and maltreatment is education for parenthood, including topics such as punishment as a child-rearing method and child care. Education of this sort should be at all levels in the curriculum and include *both* sexes.

Some schools have living laboratories where secondary students work with preschoolers in nurseries. These programs offer ideal opportunities for students to learn about young children and their needs.

But parent education could also involve parents of pupils in the school system. The school nurse, social worker, and classroom teacher may discuss and advise parents on problems of child rearing and discipline. PTA's can devote meetings to subjects such as positive methods of disciplining children and child maltreatment and abuse, stressing the agencies available in the school and community that may assist families with the problem. □

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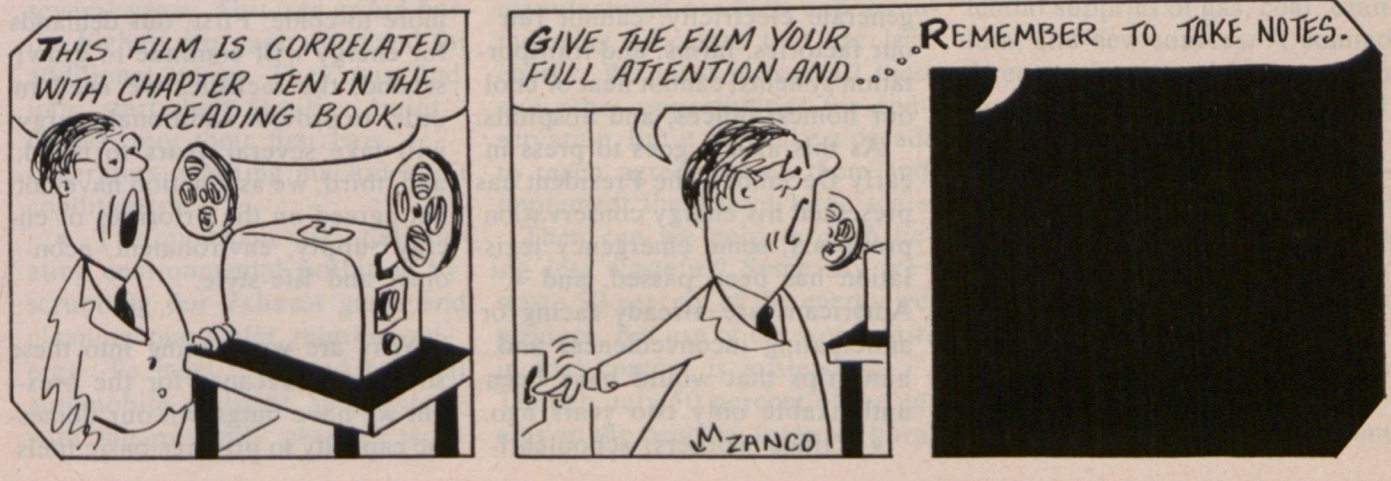
The articles in this feature are only a few that the Journal *has carried over the years dealing with children who have special problems. Other articles have considered children with a wide gamut of problems, such as "The Dyslexic Child" (October 1971), the "Chronically Ill Child" (May 1971), and "The Slow Learner" (March 1970).*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The Energy Crisis

savenergy

Initial symbol of the Federal Energy Conservation Campaign.

By THEODORE WEAVER
Director of Patents and Licensing, Fluor Corporation, and President, American Institute of Chemical Engineers for 1973.

For many years, we in America enjoyed virtually unlimited domestic supplies of energy at a lower cost than did other major industrialized countries. This advantage contributed to an independent foreign policy and to our ability to export manufactured goods profitably. Now we have arrived at a turning point. For the short term, at least, we shall suffer from energy shortages, resulting inconvenience, and economic hardships.

For some time, our big cities experienced brownouts—shortages of electricity—but many people put the problem aside, thinking it was caused only by a shortage of electric generators, a shortage that should be easy to correct.

While, in fact, the shortage of generators will take several years to correct, we are now seeing clear evidence of a more vital problem—the shortage of primary fuels, without which we cannot generate electricity; cannot run our factories, farms, and transportation systems; cannot heat or cool our homes, offices, and hospitals.

As this article goes to press in early December, the President has presented his energy conservation proposals, some emergency legislation has been passed, and Americans are already facing or anticipating inconveniences and hardships that would have been unthinkable only two years ago.

- Office workers, schoolchildren, apartment dwellers, and other inhabitants of large buildings are learning what an indoor temperature of 68 degrees Fahrenheit feels like—a chilling lesson for people who have considered temperatures of 72, even 75, degrees "normal."
- Motorists, accustomed to driving at 70 miles per hour, are getting used to 50 mile per hour speed limits. They no longer think that gasoline rationing is just something to reminisce about. They are also forming car pools and riding buses.
- Air travelers have fewer flights to choose from.
- Environmentalists fear that relaxing pollution controls to expand our fuel supplies will give polluters an excuse not to clean up the environment.
- Employees are speculating that a shortened work week may be in the offing.
- Everybody wonders whether these and the other "sacrifices" being planned will save enough fuel to get us through the winter comfortably.

These deprivations are not yet very painful, but there will be more to come: First, our demands for energy will continue to grow; second, the facilities we need in order to provide additional energy will take several years to build; and, third, we as a nation have not yet agreed on the priorities of energy supply, environment, economy, and life-style.

Why are we running into these shortages? Because for the present we have outgrown our domestic capacity to produce basic fuels

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and electricity. And it didn't happen suddenly. Prophets have been forecasting these shortages for several years. But all the corrective steps that might ease the problem are unpleasant, and the changes needed in legislation and governmental policy are unpopular, so we have not acted.

Why are additional and more serious disruptions inescapable? We cannot solve the problem by simply holding our consumption of energy at the present level, because:

- Much of our energy consumption affects jobs. With a growing labor force, our real gross national product must increase at least 4.5 percent a year just to keep the employment rate at its present level.
- Each additional person will require his or her increment of energy. Even if today we could achieve and maintain a birth rate that corresponds to zero population growth, some expansion would continue for another 60 or 70 years.
- The proportion of our population in the 25- to 35-year age group will continue to increase for several years. This age group has the highest per capita demand for additional energy. They must find jobs; start their families; build homes; buy their first cars, refrigerators, washing machines, air conditioners.
- The important task of eliminating environmental pollution by scrubbing our exhaust gases and cleaning our water requires energy. To meet projected national automobile emission standards with the presently planned technology, we are obliged to reduce the efficiency of our present automobile engines. This could increase national consumption of gasoline by 300,000 barrels a day by 1975—the output of three large refineries.
- Many steps we must take to raise our standard of living in a humanitarian way use additional energy. For example, improved medical care requires more hospitals, medical schools, doctors' offices—and more energy to build and operate them.

Isn't there a way to help by reducing our individual consumption of energy? In the short term, this can be accomplished only by giving up things we have come to consider essential. And the disruptions will bring about these individual sacrifices whether we wish them or not. For the long run, there are proposals for reducing our per capita consumption of energy by changing our pattern of living: for example, smaller, more efficient automobiles; mass transit systems; redistribution of people and industry to minimize need for private transportation. Also, there are opportunities for changing to manufactured products and manufacturing processes that use less energy. We must pursue all these and other opportunities for conservation, but it may take a decade to reach agreement on them and implement them on a large scale.

Then can we help through being less wasteful? Some say we waste 50 percent of the energy we produce, but use of the word *waste* in that context is misleading. Though only 50 percent of the energy in the primary fuels we burn is delivered in the form of useful heat or work, most of the balance is lost because of fundamental, thermodynamic limitations.

Of course, some industrial processes can be made more efficient, and some of the needed changes are already under way. Also, the energy needed to heat and cool our houses, stores, offices, and schools can be reduced by installing better insulation. But a good deal of time and money will be needed to alter existing buildings. Thus, while we must pursue a vigorous program of elimination of true waste, it will only ease the steepness of our energy demand curve, not flatten it.

Then, granted there is a real problem, why is its solution so difficult that everyone must be involved? Isn't it only a matter of increasing our supplies of petroleum and natural gas and coal and nuclear power and taking advantage of some of the new energy sources? Let us look at each of these alternatives.

First is *petroleum,* the fuel which might most quickly fill the gap between our needs and our potential supplies of gas, coal, uranium, and new sources. A common forecast of our need for petroleum liquids by 1985 is about 30 to 35 million barrels a day, about double our present rate of consumption. How can we double our supplies of petroleum? There is more oil to be found in the United States, but this country has been explored more thoroughly than any other large land mass in the world. So the remaining petroleum will be harder to find and

Help Wanted!

Because the energy crisis will be with us for a long time to come, Today's Education *wants to follow up this feature with a roundup of constructive suggestions and information about dealing with said crisis from schools throughout the country. So, we turn to our readers with a double-barreled request:*

1. Describe how the crisis is affecting your school and your community and what student-action program(s) you or your schools have instituted for energy conservation.

2. Please tell us your approach to teaching about the energy crisis and include ordering information about helpful background materials you have used that are available nationally, either free or at modest cost.

Please send, as promptly as possible, to: Dept. EC, Today's Education, 1201 16th St., N.W., Washington, DC 20036. Be sure to include your name, teaching position, and school.

deeper and more difficult to produce. Our most promising opportunities are in Alaska and under our continental shelves so we must face up to questions of risks to the environment. And development of our new domestic sources involves long delays. To deal with conservative growth in demand, we will need to import about 15 million barrels a day by 1980 and about 20 million by 1985. This will amount to over half our total consumption of petroleum and will pose questions of military and economic security.

- Most of those petroleum imports must probably come from a small area—the Middle East and North Africa. Senator Henry M. Jackson of Washington State, who introduced much of the recent emergency legislation, declared recently that for three years he has been warning about the danger created by the increasing reliance on oil from unstable sources. "I have said over and over again that it is not responsible to put this country's energy lifeline in the hands of those who could blackmail America."
- We would require $25 to $50 billion a year in foreign exchange. Where will we get that much additional export business in the light of our recent inability to balance our foreign exchange needs?
- It has been estimated that by the early 1980's Saudi Arabia alone, a nation of less than 10 million people, will be exporting up to $50 billion worth of oil each year into the industrialized nations. That amounts to at least $5,000 a year for each person in that country. What can the developed nations exchange with these people in such quantities?
- Russia has indicated that she would like us to help develop her undeveloped petroleum reserves. As a nation of well over 200 million people, Russia represents a much better trading opportunity. But how do we evaluate the risk of becoming dependent on Russia?

The very act of importing 15 million barrels of oil a day would require that eight to 10 supertankers of the largest size currently in use unload somewhere on our shores each day. But we do not now have any port capable of handling such a supertanker. The present ports on our East and Gulf Coasts are limited to tankers about one-sixth to one-eighth the size of the supertankers. There is some hazard associated with superports and supertankers. Can we let the hazard of an accident involving a major oil spill stop us from importing oil in large ships, a less costly way of doing the job and maybe safer in the long run than in a multitude of small ships?

And how will we refine this additional oil? If by the early 1980's we double our present consumption of petroleum, we must double our nation's refining capacity. This would mean a major program of expanding existing refineries as well as building 15 to 20 large new refineries, each with a lead time of about four years after site selection.

But nobody wants a refinery in his neighborhood, so there are almost no acceptable sites where we can begin to build, and no new refinery is even in the engineering

We must rapidly find acceptable compromises among our conflicting desires and implement these with action, in an atmosphere of urgency.

stage. If, to keep refineries out of our neighborhoods, we refine the crude oil overseas, our balance-of-payments problems will become still more difficult because the price of refined products is higher than that of crude oil. Also our security problems will be still greater, and we will be exporting jobs and capital.

Then if oil doesn't solve our problem, let's look at what contribution we may expect from *natural gas.* In the past four years, our rate of discovery, our reserves, and our production have declined. Gas companies have begun to refuse to take on new customers and to stop serving some old industrial customers.

While the low price for gas has been a factor in the present supply situation and a higher price would encourage more exploration and drilling, we must recognize that the greatest source of new reserves is the continental shelf. So again we have to confront the question of allowing ourselves to drill and produce offshore.

How much gas might we hope to find this way? Most estimates indicate that the new finds will just about balance the decline in our present fields.

While thinking about natural gas, we need to recognize some important questions. What is the best way to use our limited supplies of gas? Who will bear the economic shock that will result from enforced changes to other fuels? What relative priority should be assigned to householders, petrochemical industries, other industrial users, power plants? Should this be done by

NEA Reaction to the Energy Crisis

At its November meeting, the NEA Board of Directors called for NEA President Helen Wise "to arrange for the NEA to appear and speak before national hearings that will establish national standards on fuel and/or energy controls or related matters and to have transmitted to the Board members the actions or findings of such hearings."

In commenting on NEA's action to date, Executive Secretary Terry Herndon told the Board:

"We began this past August pointing out to the Administration that the potential fuel shortages would create problems for schools, and we'd like to have a dialogue with them in terms of federal roles in the process."

In a letter to President Nixon's energy adviser, NEA Vice-President James A. Harris has pledged NEA's support of the national appeal to conserve energy and its willingness to work with the Administration and Congress on the solution of the energy crisis as it affects children, schools, and school people.

Along with the need to conserve energy resources, Harris pointed out: "We must not lose sight of the health and safety of pupils, educational environment and morale, financial stability of school districts that receive state aid based on the number of days that schools are open, and contractual obligations of districts to their employees."

Executive Secretary Herndon told the Board: "We have surveyed our state affiliates to find out what the status is in the various states. The positions of the state affiliates vary widely. Some are supporting the Administration. Some are waiting to see what the Administration has to say. Others have already moved forward, specifically Oregon and New York, to open a dialogue with the governors.

"Our national response capability is in many ways circumscribed because the direct impact on schools is going to be a function of decision making of state and local government and a function of state statutes and local contracts. So enforcement capabilities on our behalf are different in 10,000 different places. We are setting up to advise and assist and monitor what's happening and provide information for state affiliates."

The NEA Board of Directors also approved the appointment of "a task force of teachers to develop for dissemination as soon as possible lesson plans, teaching guides, and other appropriate instructional materials related to . . . the social, economic, and political implications of the energy crisis and its impact on American life."

The motion also called for similar action by this task force in respect to Watergate. See page 23.

government allocation? Or should we let the prices of fuels rise to their free-market values, so that forces of free-market economics determine priorities?

Now let's look at *coal.* Our national resources are said to be sufficient to supply our energy requirements for some hundreds of years. With a concerted effort, we could expand our production of coal fast enough to reduce our reliance on imported petroleum. But coal as it comes out of the ground is a dirty fuel. Our present national air-pollution-control standards will not permit us to burn it in large installations without further processing to convert it to a clean fuel or without scrubbing the exhaust gases before discharging them.

This will require time to complete process research and development, which is now under way but which may not be proved commercially suitable for another year or two, and then money to build expensive installations.

Conversion of coal to synthetic natural gas is a possibility of clean combustion close enough at hand for active planning and realistic cost estimating. Synthetic natural gas made from coal at a large strip-mining site in New Mexico and pipelined to industrial areas on the Pacific Coast or in the Middle West could be available in significant quantities in about five years and would cost from three to four times what industrial and power plants in those areas have been paying. Other, cheaper routes to cleaning coal may be found, but timing is still a matter of speculation.

Finally, if we are to use coal on a large scale, we must agree to accept and minimize the environmental impact of strip-mining. If we produce enough coal to meet only half our national energy requirements in the early 1980's, we must open up, by strip-mining, more than 250 square miles of land each year. Restoration is

References

Teachers may find the following information helpful as background material in studying about the energy crisis:

Brown, Lester R. *The Interdependence of Nations.* Foreign Policy Association, Inc., 1972. (One of the "Headline Series." Available for $1.25 from the Association, 345 E. 46th St., New York 10017.)

Citizens' Action Guide to Energy Conservation. U.S. Government Printing Office, 1973. (Available for $1.75 from the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, DC 20402. Cat. No. PR 37.8: EN 8/C49/3, Stock No. 4000-0030.)

de Borchgrave, Arnaud, "Middle Eastern Oil: European Security." *Vital Speeches of the Day,* (September 15, 1973), pp. 716-19.

The Economy of Energy Conservation in Educational Facilities. Educational Facilities Laboratories, Inc., 1973. (Available for $2 from EFL, 477 Madison Ave., New York 10022.)

Hunter, Robert E. *The Energy "Crisis" and U.S. Foreign Policy.* Foreign Policy Association, Inc., 1973. (One of the "Headline Series." Available for $1.25 from the Association, 345 E. 46th St., New York 10017.)

Impact of Gasoline Marketing Practices on the Consumer. U.S. Government Printing Office, 1973. (Available for 50¢ from the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, DC 20402. Cat. No. Y 4.C 73/2:93-7, Stock No. 5270-01798.)

"Is the Big Shortage Just Gas?" *Newsweek,* (July 2, 1973), pp. 59-60.

Nader, Ralph, "It's a Gas." *New Republic,* (May 12, 1973), pp. 16-17.

Swearingen, John E., "The Energy Dilemma." *Vital Speeches of the Day,* (October 1, 1973), pp. 750-53.

"Winter Fuel Shortage: How Bad?" *U.S. News and World Report,* (November 12, 1973), pp. 17-20.

The following may be of special interest to elementary teachers:

Knapp, Clifford and Seim, Stuart S. *Bulletin-Boards for Environmental Studies,* The Instructor Publications, Inc., 1973. (Available for $1.50 from The Instructor Publications, Inc., Dansville, NY 14437.)

Also available is a free bibliography prepared by NEA Instruction and Professional Development. Send a No. 10 self-addressed, stamped envelope to IPD, NEA Center, 1201 16th St., N.W., Washington, DC 20036.

possible, but we must agree on standards.

Now what about *nuclear fission?* It is believed that we have large domestic reserves of uranium which, with advances in technology, could take care of us for many years to come. And even if we had to import uranium, this might cost only one-twentieth to one-tenth as much as the petroleum to produce the same amount of energy.

But our nuclear power program is well behind earlier forecasts. Even some of the plants that have been planned, designed, and constructed are under attack as being unsafe, and their operation is delayed. At the end of the summer of 1972, 29 nuclear power plants that had been scheduled to be on stream had not yet started up, some being delayed three or four years. The capacity of those plants is almost 25 million kilowatts. It takes almost a million barrels a day of fuel oil to generate that much electricity in our present oil-fired plants.

Plans for additional nuclear power projects are further bogged down in debates over location, environmental impact, and safety. One of our critical needs, if we are to have a nuclear program, is a national consensus on the ground rules for locating, building, and using nuclear power.

Even though nuclear energy won't help much in the short run, it can play an important role in the long run because so much nuclear fuel is within our own borders. We need to act now to establish a clear nuclear power policy, because acceptance of today's conventional nuclear power plants is an essential prelude to eventual acceptance of tomorrow's breeder reactors that promise to stretch out the life of our uranium supplies many times over and to provide large blocks of low-cost electricity.

What about the new forms of fuel and the new sources of energy that have been proposed? *Shale oil* is one. There are large quantities in the Rocky Mountain area but technology for utilization is not ready for large commercial use. The decision on whether to build the first major commercial plant may be made in two or three years. If that venture succeeds and if we can solve other problems of water supply, waste disposal, and government policy on leasing of mineral rights, we might have enough large plants in operation to make a noticeable impact on our import problems 15 years from now. But again, recognize that development of a shale-oil industry will have a major negative impact on the environment of Colorado, Utah, and Wyoming. We must examine that hazard realistically to reach a decision about it.

Tar sands are another potential source of fuel. But the major deposits are in Canada. While that location would give us a greater sense of security than some overseas sites, we would still have need for foreign exchange. Besides, Canadians are reluctant to export their natural resources for development of the United States. Preferring us to build our fuel-consuming industries in Canada, they have recently lowered their ceiling on exported oil. We need to seek compromise with them on this issue.

Somewhere in the future we also see power from further development of *geothermal sources* and from *solar energy* and *nuclear fusion.* These all deserve serious research and development programs, but none can be available on a large scale quickly enough to help us out of our dilemma before the 1990's or later.

In November 1973, the National Science Foundation invited some of our leading scientists to a symposium in Washington to plan the contributions that technology can make. But improved versions of presently known technology won't help in this decade.

Then what are we to do? We must rapidly find acceptable compromises among our conflicting desires and implement these with action, in an atmosphere of urgency.

Engineers can help define the options available with today's technology. An informed public must choose among the options. As citizens we still have to engage in extensive dialogue and debate, so that we may agree on—

- What life-style we can afford and wish to defend.
- What we are prepared to sacrifice to ensure that our economy does not now begin to shrink.
- How we will protect our environment.
- What measures we should take in the name of national security.
- How we will end the debates and begin action. □

Criticisms of Standardized Testing

By MILTON G. HOLMEN
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The case for objective assessment of educational achievement through standardized ability testing is based upon the idea that we ought to try our best to measure accurately what children are able to do. Such information, it is argued, should be of value to everyone genuinely concerned with the continuing development and improvement of educational practice. But despite these wholesome goals, educational and psychological testing has come in for a great deal of criticism, especially during the past 20 years. Comment has included allegations that testing is linked to thought-control efforts; that there is manipulation and undue influence on school curriculums, especially at the secondary level; and that tests promote an unwarranted invasion of privacy. Criticisms have come from civil rights spokesmen; from educators; from the critics of education in America; from sociologists, psychologists, philosophers; from politicians, journalists, and public administrators.

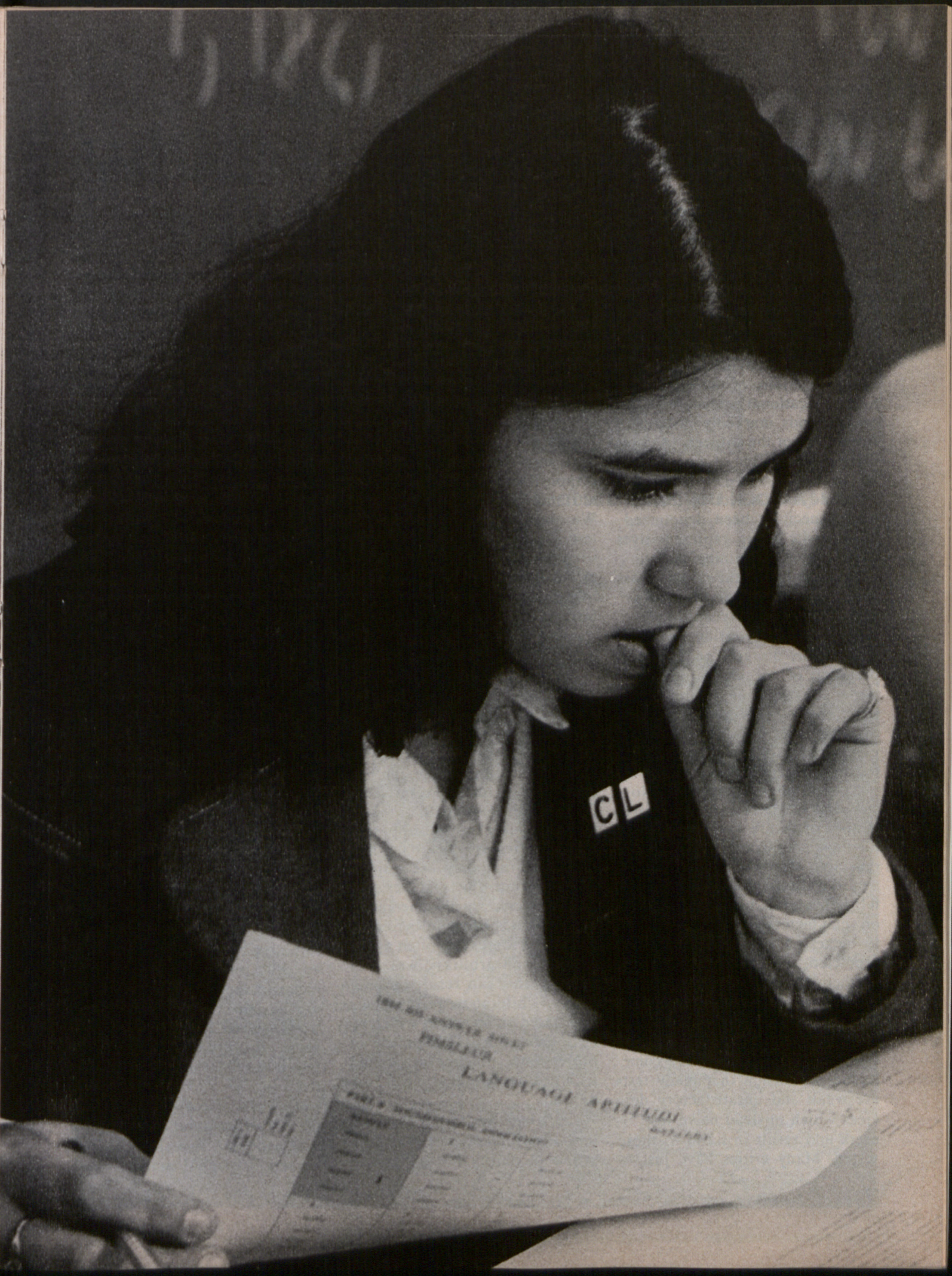
Criticisms of testing were especially bountiful in the years between 1955 and 1965. No single focal point of discontent was identified; criticisms, both major and minor, were hurled at testers in schools, in industry and government, and in clinical and research work. (The best summary of this literature is a selected annotated bibliography[1] prepared for the Commission on Tests of the College Entrance Examination Board. A report[2] prepared for this Commission independently catalogs 10 criticisms of tests. Some of these deal primarily with tests of ability or achievement, but most apply also to personality testing.)

In our book, *Educational and Psychological Testing,* we attempt to examine the testing industry and to offer a format to help evaluate the adequacy of testing systems. But in the present article we have a more limited concern; our goal is to offer a summary of the major criticisms pertaining to standardized educational testing. Please keep in mind that we are not here offering some kind of indictment of this testing; rather, we hope this identification of criticisms will contribute to the responsible development of this important segment of education.

Five Criticisms Bearing on the Validity and Utilization of Tests

Tests discriminate against some individuals. It has been strongly argued that some testing programs have consistently failed to take into account differences in cultural background and in unique individual attributes. Such failure unquestionably influences test re-

Tests must not be used in ways that will deny any student full access to equal educational opportunity.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There have been too many serious lapses of professional judgment, not only by those who are using tests without the proper qualifications, but also by professionals who should know better.

sults and may, therefore, penalize the testees.

A major concern is whether tests developed primarily for use with Caucasian subjects can properly be administered to minority-group members. Many of the latter may have educational and cultural backgrounds markedly different from those of the subjects used in the standardization of any particular test.

Employment-selection tests have especially been denounced by minority-group representatives as too often containing built-in bias which favors the middle-class white person and discriminates against the minority applicant. While respected testing professionals may disagree on the interpretation of specific data purported to prove or disprove this point, they agree that tests lacking in job-related validity have no place in selection-and-placement testing programs.

Tests predict imperfectly. No standardized tests are perfect predictors of future behavior. Even the most enthusiastic proponent of objective assessment techniques would insist that his ability to foretell behavior is highly dependent on such factors as the individual(s) to be tested, the behavior to be predicted, the time over which prediction is to be attempted, and the criterion measures used to establish predictive effectiveness.

But even with all these qualifications, critics of testing have come to the conclusion that many tests are weak and unsatisfactory devices which mislead naive test users and result in harm to those tested. Many critics have just about given up on tests, for they see them as falling far short of the ideal applications envisioned by their creators and their publishers.

The problem of test validation encompasses many issues that go beyond establishment of certain formal psychometric properties which may be present to some extent in any test. The proper use of tests must encompass a variety of responsibilities independent of the attributes of any particular test. We must not only ask whether a test has been shown to possess some kind of validity for a known group of subjects, but also must investigate many other questions bearing on the particular circumstances surrounding the application of the test.

Test scores may be rigidly interpreted. Test scores provide one opportunity to establish a data base for the arbitrary classification of individuals. Anyone interested in labeling people can have a field day with test results. This fact notwithstanding, the properly trained user of tests is supposed to know that test scores are not fixed measures, that they are estimates of human attributes at best, and that they necessarily encompass various kinds of sampling errors.

But test scores are often applied in rigid and arbitrary ways. In schools, this can result in assignment of children to ability groupings based on measures which may be indefensible. The quality of professional practice associated with test usage leaves much to be desired.

Tests may be assumed to measure innate characteristics. Some critics of ability testing have argued that tests provide scores that may be naively interpreted as measures of innate characteristics, such as "intelligence"; many harmful consequences are said to flow from this misconception. It has occasionally been assumed that, if tests were not available, people would not make arbitrary classifications of individuals. Tests are therefore condemned as antihumanistic and as fostering a view of mankind that sees human abilities as fixed or rigidly limited.

Even worse, some critics have reasoned that tests influence individuals to conceive of man in categorical terms, such as "mentally retarded" or "gifted." They conclude that thinking of this kind is undesirable.

At first glance, this seems to be nothing more than a variation on the practice of making rigid use of test scores. The essential difference, however, as expressed by some critics, is that not only do tests foster the belief that man has fixed "intelligence" based on innate characteristics, but also that the use made of test scores depends heavily on such a belief.

The kind of school program offered and the energy invested in preparing a youngster for the future may be directly influenced by an educator's belief that tests measure innate intelligence. The egalitarian ethic in America frowns upon labeling based on some arbitrary measurement supposed to reflect innate characteristics.

Test scores may influence teacher expectation regarding student potential. In a classical study, Robert Rosenthal and Lenore

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Jacobson[3] showed that, when teachers' expectations regarding student potentials were based on fictitious information about the students' abilities, the actual achievement of students reflected these expectations. Those who were expected to achieve less did achieve less, and vice versa.

Critics of ability testing have argued with considerable force that tests of "intelligence" have highly undesirable consequences for student performance because, at least in part, teachers tend to relate to students differentially, according to their supposed intelligence. Students who are singled out as "gifted" or "low ability" are given different assignments, rewards, and teachers, and they are systematically taught what is expected of them.

There seems little argument

NEA Task Force on Testing

In an interim report, the final draft of which will be presented to the 1975 NEA Representative Assembly, the NEA Task Force on Testing listed the following positions. These are based on a survey of the vast literature on educational testing and evaluation, over 30 hours of hearings, and debate on the issues by members of the Task Force.

The Task Force believes that—

1. Some measurement and evaluation in education is necessary.

2. Some of the measurement and evaluation tools developed over the years, and currently in use, contain satisfactory validity and reliability requirements and serve useful purposes when properly administered and interpreted.

3. Certain measurement and evaluation tools are either invalid and unreliable, out-of-date, or unfair and should be withdrawn from use.

4. The training of those who use measurement and evaluation tools is woefully inadequate, and schools of education, school systems, and the testing industry all must take responsibility for correcting these inadequacies. Such training must develop understanding about the limitations of tests for making predictions about potential learning ability, of their lack of validity in measuring innate characteristics, and their dehumanizing effects on many students. It must also include understanding the students' rights related to testing and the use of test results.

5. There is overkill in the use of standardized tests and the intended purposes of testing can be accomplished through less use of standardized tests, through sampling techniques where tests are used, and through a variety of alternatives to tests.

6. The National Teacher Examinations are an improper tool and must not be used for teacher certification, recertification, selection, assignment, retention, salary determination, promotion, transfer, tenure, or dismissal.

7. The results from group standardized tests should not be used as a basis for allocation of federal or state funds.

8. Standardized tests should not be used for tracking students.

9. While the purposes and procedures of the National Assessment of Educational Progress may have been initially sound, a number of state adaptations of such programs have subverted the original intent and as a result are potentially harmful.

10. Both the content and use of the typical group intelligence tests are biased against those who are economically disadvantaged and culturally and linguistically different, and especially against all minority groups.

11. The use of the typical intelligence test contributes to what has come to be termed "the self-fulfilling prophecy," whereby students' achievement tends to fulfill the expectations held by others.

12. Test results are too often used by educators, students, and parents in ways that are hurtful to the self-concept of many students.

13. The testing industry must demonstrate significantly increased responsibility for the validity, reliability, and up-to-dateness of their tests, for their fair application, and for accurate and just interpretation and use of their results.

14. The public, and some in the profession, misinterpret the results of tests as they relate to status and needs of groups of students as well as to individual students.

15. In summary, the major use of tests should be for the improvement of instruction—for diagnosis of learning difficulties and for prescribing learning activities in response to learning needs. They must not be used in any way that will lead to labeling and classifying of students, for tracking into homogeneous groups as the major determinants to educational programs, to perpetuate an elitism, or to maintain some groups and individuals "in their place" near the bottom of the socio-economic ladder. In short, tests must not be used in ways that will deny any student full access to equal educational opportunity. □

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that teachers' expectations contribute to student performance. It is less clear what factors shape teacher expectations. Test scores may be important in determining differences among students for some teachers; however, we need to know far more about the entire matter of teacher expectancy, for many other variables may help to determine their attitudes.

Five Criticisms That Are Independent of Test Validity

Tests have a harmful effect on the shaping of cognitive styles. The widespread use of multiple-choice test items, matching items, and other test components with a single correct answer is said by some critics of testing to contribute to undesirable styles of thinking. Some claim that the young student is carefully taught that all problems must have a right or wrong answer, and thus the student is led to think in this manner about all questions.

Tests shape school curriculums and restrict educational change. When teachers know that the evaluation of their students will be based on a particular kind of test of some more or less predictable content, they make extensive efforts to assist their students to perform well on these tests. The proponents of statewide testing programs would probably argue that this is exactly what they have in mind—that teachers ought to be encouraged to cover material which their colleagues consider essential. "What's wrong with this?" they ask.

Critics of testing say that experimentation with new ways of teaching, the introduction of new subject matter, and the whole process of individualizing instruction in terms of the needs and interests of individual students are hamstrung by a slavish adherence to standardized achievement testing. The question seems to come down to finding an acceptable balance between the need to know what has been learned during a given period of time and the encouragement of innovation, change, and experimentation in the classroom.

Tests distort the individual's self-concept and level of aspiration. Of all the criticisms of tests, one of the most penetrating and difficult to dismiss is that young persons may generalize from test results and make conclusions about themselves which are not warranted or intended. For example, consider the teenager who may be struggling to establish a more positive and more realistic self-concept. How helpful is it for him to be shown his low test scores which may make him conclude that he is far less capable than his classmates?

How many high school students have received brief and inappropriate counseling recommendations, usually based in part on test results, and have concluded from these recommendations that they are not "college material"? One large school district, for example, regularly presents junior high school students with test result summaries printed on cards that the students take home to their parents. These cards offer a lucid and easily understandable summary of what the various achievement and aptitude scores mean. Although the intent is to make information available to parents, there are obviously risks in terms of shaping the attitudes of students toward themselves.

In our view, the proper handling of test results calls for neither a strategy of silence and secrecy nor for open distribution of data without discussion, clarification, and interpretation of meanings.

Tests select homogeneous educational groups. A common procedure in organizing a school is to assign students to classes on the basis of estimates of learning ability. Very often these estimates are based on ability testing. It is a short step to conclude that tests have determined the organizational style of schools, and it may surely be argued that tests do indeed contribute to the way in which students are assigned.

Critics of the ability-track system, as this arrangement is often called, frequently see educational testing as the bad guy. But, were no test data available, an educational administrator dedicated to ability-track grouping could find numerous criteria, such as grades, teachers' ratings of ability, and so forth, for making these assignments.

Concerns about homogeneous grouping in schools have acquired strength with recent research which suggests that this allocation procedure tends to do more harm to the low groups than can be justified. The proponents of heterogeneous assignment to classes argue that children with lower ability need the stimulation and the role models provided by higher-ability students if they are to achieve as much as they possibly can. *(Continued on page 60)*

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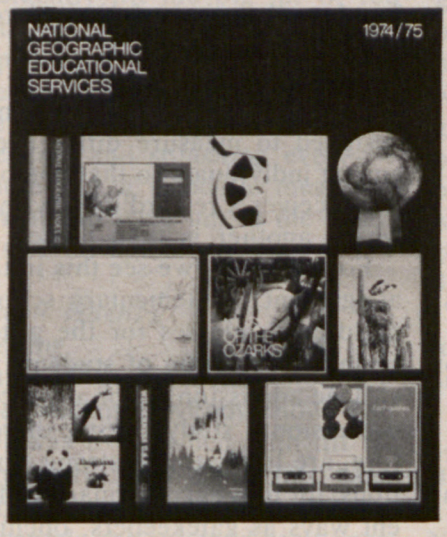

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Testing programs that make constructive contributions to human assessment may well be regarded as beneficial by most people.

Contemporary approaches to school organization stress the importance of providing a program of individual instruction for each child, regardless of the range of competences within a class. Educators are now stressing the positive influences of heterogeneous grouping, with the result that the track system is generally thought to be on the way out. But for the parents of children who are assigned to low groups, the track system is an unpleasant reality based primarily on test results. Hence, since tests are often painted as the villain in the situation, it is assumed that banning tests will eliminate the track system.

However, with regard to a school district set on the perpetuation of homogeneous ability grouping, the problem is not so much one of testing or not testing, but rather one of adherence to a questionable concept of educational organization.

Tests invade privacy. School attendance is mandatory for young children. Once in school, the children are generally required to participate in activities, including testing, which some parents consider to be invasions of privacy.

Certainly few would argue against allowing schools to give tests to determine what a student has learned in some course of study, but should schools be allowed to require students to take intelligence tests? What good is such information to a school? Can data from some tests be used to the disadvantage of a student without his knowledge that such information even exists? How can the line be more clearly established between information that a school requires to help reach a legitimate decision and information that it has no business acquiring in the first place? The right to privacy is precious to the citizens of a free society; only when there is compelling justification should tests invading privacy be used.

Tests as Gatekeepers: The Central Criticism

At the heart of the criticisms about tests and testing programs is one fact that is likely to help perpetuate at least some of the criticism: Tests are often used as tools for the allocation of limited resources or opportunities. Put another way, educational and psychological tests are frequently designed to measure differences among individuals so that one person receives a reward or privilege which another is then denied.

For example, we see this in the assignment of elementary school children to classes for the gifted or in the selection of students for college admission or for advanced professional study. Tests, therefore, are likely to stir strong emotions, for they serve in many different ways as gatekeepers, opening and closing pathways of human opportunity.

Are tests necessarily the kind of gatekeepers we want? This is a question involving individual values, organizational goals, and, increasingly, laws and regulations designed to assure equal access to educational and employment opportunities. One thing is certain: Tests are no longer granted any immunity or magical status, or are they assumed to be good simply because of their objectivity or psychometric purity. The lawmaker as well as the man on the street has a skeptical eye on educational and psychological testing.

There have been too many serious lapses of professional judgment, not only by those who are using tests without the proper qualifications, but also by professionals who should know better. And minority groups' intense concern for fair play relative to testing is not going to evaporate; indeed, it will probably be expressed with increasing vehemence.

However, while we may anticipate continued criticism of tests for a variety of reasons, testing programs that measure up to high professional standards and can be shown to make constructive contributions to human assessment may well be regarded as beneficial by most people. □

The authors have discussed this topic at greater length in their book, *Educational and Psychological Testing: A Study of the Industry and Its Practices* (New York, Russell Sage Foundation, 1972).

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How the Whole Jar Got Spilled

By TERESA FOLEY
Learning Facilitator, Elementary Schools, Dover, New Hampshire.

Elizabeth Warren
Probably for my folder

I have already explained it twice and I don't think I should have to do this written assignment. Because I am in the clear. But Miss Harrington isn't satisfied, so here goes ad infinity. . . .

The four of us were at the craft table just before the bell Friday afternoon. That tells you *where* and *when*. Iona Fleming, Joseph Hughes, Ladd Moody, and myself. That tells you *who*. The teacher put us together so it is not our fault we got Ladd. He has been in my room since kindergarden. The sixth grade has been the worst because she likes to group differents together and it is always my luck to get stuck with him.

What we were doing was illustrating our haikus. With poster paints on white construction paper to decorate the room for Japanese Festival. My haiku was about birds and spring, which is what a haiku is supposed to be about and not machinery. I needed to cut out one syllable to get down to 17. Iona has done haiku all over the country and she said to work on "fluttering" and right away Ladd leaned over and wrote a bad two-syllable substitute upside down on my rough draft.

That wasn't enough. I had a new World Book open to a picture of a vireo I was referring to and after I had a good vireo on a branch, Ladd came over again and colored the bird's eyes with red paint.

If anyone says I put an orange top on his number five first, they are lying. He has always made his fives like a flat in music, and it would drive you crazy to see nothing where the tops should be. But it is not my business how he makes his fives as everybody told me in the last class CHAT (Come-Have-A-Talk) and I accepted, March 19. All this time Ladd was humming "Little Willie" off-key and making those sickening noises he makes after he hears the menu read at the opening morning exercises.

Finally he got up with the purple and reached over to put it who knows where on my vireo, and I moved quick to keep the paint from dripping on Miss Harrington's good encyclopedia and Ladd accidently hit the big jar of red with his elbow that was not even supposed to be brought to the table and knocked it clear across the room ruining Ann Rich's sneakers and splashing everywhere like a sicodelic massacre.

You can see I am in the clear, Miss Harrington.

Joseph Hughes
Spelling

I am not going to do *who were when* becaus evrybody know. The tabl was to crowded with all the paper ruff draffs and paints, cans of rince water and Lizerbeths's enclycopede she coudend keep open to V. Coppying again. Ladd was painting a beatiful XR75 minibike. Elizerbeth ca'nt leve his 5s alone even after 25 minnits waisted on a class CHAT and saying she akcepted. She had to put an orang top on it and Ladd went after her bird and honst To god if I confessing to the biship rigt now I dont no who nocked the red off. But it was Iona from Balona that brot the big one to the table in the frist place becaus she is defieant of all the rules.

Iona Lee Fleming
Language arts

Every school I go to we do haiku and illustrate it. Seventeen syllables that don't even rime. Big deal. Putting differents together was out but OUT in my last school. (If you really want boys and girls to understand each other Ma'am, you could let us dance at noon and rainy recess.)

Nobody ever told me since I came here we weren't allowed to bring the quarts to the tables for refills if the teacher was busy with fights at the leather scrap box, but I'm glad anyway that I wasn't the one that did it. Our table made me nervous with everybody putting paint on other peoples pictures and rough graphs and no supervision. Ladd was the worst in Language and actions. And Joseph next. Then Elizabeth. She did monkey with Ladd's five. Ladd was putting on an ulser attack and gave a big belch and when I opened my eyes from discust the paint had gone over. It's too bad it was the red. Every school I have gone teachers hate to have accidents with primery colors.

(P.S. Please don't put this in my folder, Miss H. We're moving soon and I like a clean record.)

Ladd
Art

I was mining my own busness. You cant do it with fluffy Elizbeth. Its getting harder and harder to rember to leave the flags off my fives arond her. A big hecup came up in me and I blaked out right before the accerdint. I don't think Joseph di it neather. My ruft drf is one mess. And I need 5 more silbyls, Mrs. Farrington. □

High school students work with young children in an innovative Child Development Laboratory in Montgomery County, Maryland.

How To Innovate Successfully

By DANIEL S. ARNOLD
Associate Dean for Teacher Education, College of Education, University of Kentucky, Lexington, Former High School Science Teacher, and
AUDREY GOODLOE
Fourth Grade Teacher, Cardinal Valley School, Lexington.

Most of us can point to a relatively small number of innovations that survived after the bright glow of newness had worn off. Of course, the survival of a program in a form that is reasonably faithful to the original model is not the only criterion of success. Even when a school abandons the original innovation, it is altogether possible that a residue of desirable change remains. One is forced, however, to concede that the amount of change that has occurred in schools is unimpressive when compared to the financial and human resources devoted to the change effort in recent years.

In general, the following seem to be the causal factors present in apparently successful attempts to change school programs significantly:

1. The innovation is a response to a locally recognized educational need or problem.

The road toward more effective schools is strewn with the wreckage of change attempts that failed because they lacked sufficient understanding or sympathy from administrators, faculty, policy-making boards, or parents.

If school leaders are interested in undertaking change attempts that are not in keeping with preexisting community and local professional priorities, then they will need to make extensive educational efforts to influence those opinions before initiating activities to implant the educational change.

2. The relationship between the innovation and the problem it is to attack is clear to administrators, teachers, policy-making boards, and parents.

The managerial tasks of mounting a significant new educational effort are so demanding that project leaders often neglect to communicate—except to the small circle of persons most directly involved—the subtleties of how a new school organization or curricular plan contributes to the solution of a defined problem.

When the chain of reasoning that justifies the innovation is highly theoretical, when the causal connection between problem and innovation involves several steps, or when successes are not apparent in a relatively short time, teachers, parents, and others tend to grow impatient and may subvert the effort out of their lack of enthusiasm. When understanding of the relationship between the problem and the innovation is absent, the innovation attempt may appear as change for change's sake. If innovators underestimate the complexity of that relationship, they may make unjustified assumptions about the participants' empathy.

3. The innovation is an appropriate response to the defined problem. *(Continued)*

Pondus
Penguin

The road toward more effective schools is strewn with the wreckage of change attempts that failed because they lacked sufficient understanding or sympathy from administrators, faculty, policy-making boards, or parents.

This appears so obvious as not to merit inclusion in a list of critical considerations, but we believe that this criterion is frequently not met in attempts to innovate. A current example of its violation relates to the teaching of basic learning skills to educationally disadvantaged children.

When a school recognizes the extent of this group's failure to learn to read, a not infrequent response has been to simply increase the time spent in reading instruction two-, three-, or fourfold. Stated another way, the school chooses to give the student a larger dose of the medicine that did not in the past effect a cure. That "innovation" has frequently and repeatedly failed to provide significant improvement.

Particularly in the years since schools have been under intense pressure to deal with complex social problems, the reaction has often been to seek out the most obvious and direct intervention possible to solve learning problems. If the base cause of the problem has not been thoroughly analyzed and understood, intervention of this sort may be no better than a random shot in the dark.

Often, of course, the knowledge base upon which one must proceed provides little insight into the root causes of the problems. When that is the case in a particular instance, then those associated with the attempt ought to be aware that this is the nature of the enterprise. The failure of an acknowledged high-risk program has considerably less deleterious impact than would be the case if the program was believed to be a sure thing.

In any case, whether the new program is locally developed or is being transplanted from another locale, the wise innovator will search long and hard for evidence that the innovation attacks the cause of the problem he wishes to solve.

4. The local school is making a significant investment of resources in the project.

If an innovation is going to result in long-term modification of practice, then the school must have both financial and psychological capacity to sustain the program without supplementary funds from outside sources. Both financial and psychological commitments are easier to gain when the local school pays for what might be considered normal costs of the special project and restricts the use of supplementary funds from external grants to training teachers, acquiring extraordinary equipment, or providing whatever extraordinary services are necessary for the implementation effort.

Too frequently, teachers, building administrators, and others identify project staff as outsiders who, by virtue of operating with supplementary funds, do not function within the same constraints as do ordinary mortals. The perceived temporary nature of project staffs limits their impact on regular faculty.

Further, if the innovative project is totally or principally dependent upon special project funds, local personnel easily develop the feeling that they are not responsible for sustaining it after the honeymoon of extramural funding is over.

5. The school staff understands the rationale for the innovative program and is adequately prepared to perform the tasks required for its success.

Since the classroom teachers are the persons most concerned with the application of instructional methodology, their special in-service training will usually concentrate upon techniques and methods. It is important, however, that they also get a clear understanding of the goals and theoretical base of the innovation because otherwise they may innocently do violence to the basic purposes of the program by adjusting classroom practices for expediency or efficiency.

An example of this sort of action is to be found in some elementary school team-teaching programs. Often, teams are assembled on the basis of compensating strengths and interests in the hope that the teacher who is especially strong in one area will have a beneficial effect on the development of teaching competency among the teachers who are less adequate in that subject area but are especially strong in some other area. However, not infrequently, when left to their own devices, teachers on a team essentially destroy this con-

cept of a team by going to a departmentalized arrangement, with one member of the team teaching all the science; another, all the mathematics; and so on. It is possible that a more general understanding of the motives of the program would prevent this type of system breakdown.

Inadequate preliminary in-service training of teachers may doubly prejudice the chances of project success. The direct effect is, of course, that teachers and other professionals may be unable to perform adequately the required tasks associated with the program.

Insecurity in one's ability to perform as required is a second effect of the lack of adequate in-service training. It is of highest importance that the preliminary training be at the appropriate level and that supportive consultation be readily available to classroom teachers throughout at least the first cycle of a new program.

6. Supplementary services are adequate to support teachers in the classroom during the initial stages.

If the innovation is to have significant effect upon the instructional program of the school, redirection of teachers' activities and teacher retraining are required. It is unreasonable to expect teachers to fulfill full-time instructional responsibilities and to undertake the required training, planning, and developmental activities associated with large-scale change as well.

Even when supplementary pay is offered for evening or weekend involvement, the competition between continuing operations and innovative programs for the teacher's energy and attention is likely to be great. The success of the innovative effort is more likely when ways can be found to reduce teacher's commitments to operating the continuing program during the period that an innovation is being installed. (This has been accomplished in some cases by hiring supplementary certificated teachers or paraprofessionals.)

For example, if the new program is pointed toward significant individualization of instruction, teachers will require greater planning and preparation time both during the installation period and in continuing operation afterward. Those additional requirements must be understood and provided for. In addition, a good many teachers have not been accustomed to use preparation time in the manner project leaders expect. Unless teachers receive adequate preparation in effective use of "planning periods," there is the possibility that they may see them merely as a time to do things they cannot do in a classroom full of pupils, such as catching up on instructionally related busywork.

7. The evaluative criteria are appropriate to the innovation and are applied during the course of the program as well as at its conclusion.

In the enthusiasm that is sometimes associated with an exciting new undertaking, participants occasionally tend to overestimate the positive effect the program might have. Public accountability pressures and eagerness to create a climate of enthusiasm for the innovation tend to result in totally unrealistic expectations for the program.

If the attainment of stated project goals is to be the criterion for the short-term success of the program and the basis for the decision for its long-term retention, then it is critical to establish suitable goals and measures of goal achievement that can be achieved in the specified time period.

Experience indicates that educators are too likely to use conventional criteria, such as standardized achievement tests, to evaluate a project regardless of whether improvement of traditional academic performance represents the major thrust of the project.

Because the operational staff of an innovative program is often too close to the required day-to-day activities to make a valid assessment of the program, the staff and the planners need continuous objective feedback about how things are going. Such feedback will provide opportunity for program adjustment as problems arise and will thus enhance the probability of success.

8. The innovative program is started on a manageable scale.

When an instructional innovation appears to hold promise for the solution of educational problems, there may be a temptation to adopt it immediately on the widest possible scale. Certainly, administrators and policy-making boards are sometimes reluctant to choose certain schools in a system or classes within a school to participate in a program as innovative

The amount of change that has occurred in schools is unimpressive when compared to the financial and human resources devoted to the change effort.

sites, knowing that the choices may generate jealousy and ill will among those not chosen. There are, however, compelling reasons for starting innovations on a modest scale.

The first of these reasons is that since problems and their causes are not likely to be the same for all schools within a system, the same innovative program cannot be equally problem-specific for all schools in a sizable school system.

The second reason is that support services, such as teacher retraining and project leadership, may be impossible to supply on a large-scale basis. When those services are limited, the innovation is less likely to succeed.

9. Program leadership is capable and remains relatively unchanged throughout the implementation period.

The importance of adequate leadership for a significant change effort is obvious.

At a minimum, project leadership must possess considerable intellectual skills, plus a high level of human relations skills and managerial abilities. All of these need not be possessed by a single individual, but they must exist among persons in project leadership roles.

A common problem of innovative efforts, especially those that catch the attention of the professional education press, is that project directors are often lured away from the project to new positions while the innovative effort is still in critical stages. Under the best of circumstances, changes in project leadership generate some shifts of emphasis, direction, or procedure that may alter the nature of the innovation and inhibit its development.

School system leaders (supervisors, administrators, and policy-making boards) face a dilemma in deciding whether or not to attempt significant change efforts.

On the one hand, the rate and direction of change in the world and society require reexamination and redirection of educational program and methodology on a broad scale and at a rapid pace. On the other hand, the failure of innovative programs may cost more than is immediately apparent in terms of a net loss of self confidence of the professionals involved as well as a probable loss of community confidence in the schools.

When a school system experiences failure in a change attempt, the position to which the school retrenches may be more conservative than the original starting point. Certainly, a new effort to effect large-scale change after a sizable failure will be more difficult to initiate.

In the broad view that we have attempted to take of the change process in the complex environment of the school, shared decision making stands out as the single most promising means of moving toward flexible, responsive schools. If a reasonable level of consensus concerning the priority problems of a school can be reached by interested persons of diverse backgrounds in the community, then the remaining obstacles to effective change are much easier to overcome. □

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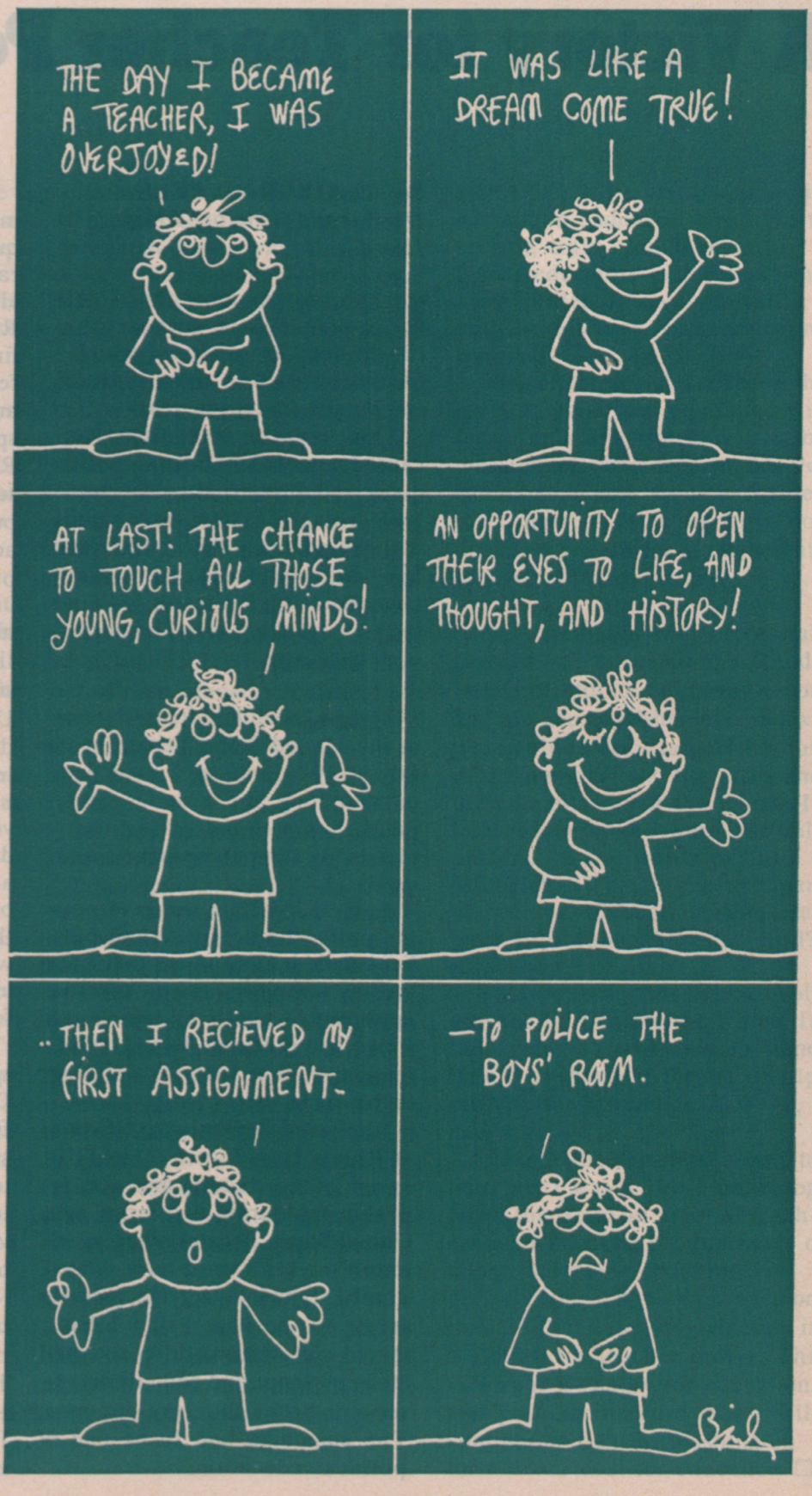
CARTOON ESSAY

By ELSA BAILEY


THE DAY I BECAME A TEACHER, I WAS OVERJOYED!
IT WAS LIKE A DREAM COME TRUE!
AT LAST! THE CHANCE TO TOUCH ALL THOSE YOUNG, CURIOUS MINDS!
AN OPPORTUNITY TO OPEN THEIR EYES TO LIFE, AND THOUGHT, AND HISTORY!
..THEN I RECIEVED MY FIRST ASSIGNMENT-
—TO POLICE THE BOYS' ROOM.

A Victory for Teacher Power

By CLAIBORNE PELL
Democratic Senator, Rhode Island.

In the past months, the American people have seen graphic illustrations of practices which have been used in some political campaigns in recent years.

This spate of revelations has caused many Americans—politicians and private citizens—to look critically at how we run political campaigns in this country and how we should run them. Many concerned citizens speak of "dirty tricks," "leaks," and "bagmen" with disgust.

I was a candidate for reelection to the United States Senate in the fall of 1972 and, as I look back on that long and arduous campaign, I am proud of the techniques my campaign workers and I used.

Early in 1972, a series of opinion polls—both private and public—made it clear to me that I was trailing far behind my prospective opponent, a man well-known and well-liked in Rhode Island. It was imperative that I devise a strategy to be reelected.

I believed fervently that if voters of Rhode Island were made fully aware of my record and accomplishments during two terms as a United States Senator, they would return me for a third term. Stated simply, I had to get the message across to the voters that I had served our state solidly and had the experience and commitment to serve it better than my opponent. The campaign had to be one of political education.

Political education can take many forms. The one most frequently employed is heavy use of radio and television advertising However, under the Campaign Reform Act of 1972, which I firmly supported, candidates for federal office were limited in the amount of money they could spend for media advertising. In Rhode Island, the limits were such that a thorough campaign of political education through paid advertising could not be accomplished.

Furthermore, it was clear that my opponent, with equal spending limitations and the strong support of the incumbent President of the United States and the Vice-President and the Cabinet, would also mount a major media effort.

How else, in addition to the conventional contact which a candidate has with the electorate during a political campaign, could I bring the message of my record to the voters? The answer I found was by using volunteer political action. And that is the course we followed.

An analysis of my campaign spending, made after Election Day, disclosed that the bulk of the funds were spent for volunteer support, including headquarters, telephones, brochures, and other tools of political education involving a large number of volunteers.

In fact, in the last 10 days of my campaign, we had a virtual army of volunteers—estimated at 15,000 Rhode Islanders—actively involved in educating their friends, neighbors, and co-workers about the Pell record.

"Before the teachers began to help me, I was a 2-to-1 underdog."

At the outset, of course, the problem was where to find these volunteers and how to use them effectively.

One of the chief sources of our volunteer effort—and one which was of crucial importance throughout the campaign—was the Rhode Island Education Association.

In August of 1971, the RIEA created a task force to advise the association on how it could be more effective politically. The task force recommended to the RIEA delegate assembly that it create a political action arm. The delegate assembly acted affirmatively on that suggestion, and the Rhode Island Political Action Committee for Education (RIPACE) was created. In retrospect, I can say that decision was an important one for me.

None of this would have occurred without the support of Sherwin J. Kapstein, executive secretary of the RIEA, one of its moving forces, and a longtime friend of mine. With the encouragement of NEA's Political Action Committee, known as NEA-PAC, a group of Rhode Island teachers formed RIPACE. They elected a South Kingstown teacher, Arthur B. Campbell, as chairman and a Warwick teacher, Ronald L. DiOrio, as treasurer.

Early in my campaign, I turned to RIPACE and its chairman and treasurer for help, and they responded with an enthusiasm that never flagged. From the outset, they became an integral part of the campaign effort, fully involved in planning and strategy. The RIPACE volunteers, joined by volunteers from other organizations, provided the heart of our campaign during what was, to me, a long, hot summer—involving frantic trips to Washington for key votes and for other vital Senate business, such as shepherding passage of the 1972 Higher Education Act, and then returning to Rhode Island for as much personal campaigning as possible.

Mr. Campbell and Mr. DiOrio enlisted the aid of many teachers, who would normally be moonlighting, taking courses, or vacationing, and convinced them to work for my reelection. At the same time, NEA-PAC and a number of state education political action groups were providing the necessary financial support to keep such a large volunteer effort rolling.

As the campaign started to jell, representatives of many groups —labor unions, social and fraternal organizations—came to me and asked what they could do to help. I told them what RIPACE was doing and suggested that it was a perfect model for "how to help." I explained that RIPACE raised its own funds, recruited its own workers, produced and distributed its own literature, issued its own press releases, conducted its own telephone canvass, and planned a system for helping voters reach the polls on Election Day.

None of these efforts by RIPACE and the other organizations which used its effort as a model drained the limited resources of my own campaign. RIPACE, in its first major political action endeavor, was able to recruit, train, and then utilize 2,000 educators—educators who were skilled in communicating and, in this case, communicating political ideas.

This effort, which started in the early summer and continued with fervor up to Election Day, was the measure of difference in the Pell campaign. These volunteers lifted the campaign from the early doldrums of pessimism to the heights of a convincing victory.

Our campaign was successful because we educated the Rhode Island electorate about my record and my accomplishments, and we were able to do it largely because of the numbers and the skills and the commitment of the Rhode Island teachers who were our volunteers. In the words of Jules Michelet, "What is the first part of politics? Education. The second? Education. And the third? Education."

Because these thousands of volunteers did educate the Rhode Island voters, I was able to stand before a cheering throng of supporters on November 7, 1972, and say:

"Before the teachers began to help me, I was a 2-to-1 underdog. Now, thanks to an army of teachers who knocked on thousands of doors and made thousands of phone calls, I have won by more than 33,000 votes. My election is a victory for teacher power. This victory is a victory for education, and you can be sure that I will continue to fight in Washington for a better deal for education."□

An Extraordinary Force

By H. JOHN HEINZ III
Republican Representative, 18th Congressional District, Pennsylvania.

Mark the following true (T) or false (F):

____Teachers can be an extraordinary force in both the nomination and election of men and women to public office.

____Teachers can provide a positive and effective resource in a political campaign because they have been trained, and work daily, in communicating information.

____Teachers can continue to play an important role after the election by providing insight to help public officials shape legislation.

If you marked all three of the above questions true, you may proceed to the head of the class.

If you were skeptical enough to mark any or all of them false, permit me to describe briefly my own rewarding experiences with members of the Western Region (Allegheny County) Political Action Committee for Education (PACE) of the Pennsylvania State Education Association.

Early in 1971, I decided to seek the nomination as U.S. Representative from the 18th Congressional District of Pennsylvania to serve the one-year unexpired term of the late Robert J. Corbett.

Mounting a Congressional campaign in a relatively short time is at best a difficult task. One attempts to organize a staff, raise funds, and, most important, stimulate active support from groups and individuals. Any number of groups and individuals will oppose a candidate's views for any number of reasons (there being *at least* two sides to every issue), so it becomes a real dilemma for a political candidate to solicit and receive the positive help he needs.

In my case, in the special election in 1971 and when I ran for reelection to a regular two-year term in 1972, teachers, both active and retired, unquestionably made up the largest single group of my volunteer supporters and were most successful in their efforts. Their success can be chalked up to a number of things, among them the fact that teachers are industrious, reliable, and display organizational abilities that may well be envied by any group seeking to get things done.

I was also favorably impressed by the method Pennsylvania teachers used to determine which candidate they were going to help. Their method—arranging a debate between the opponents before a large forum of teachers—is an excellent as well as intelligent way to assess the worth of opposing candidates.

This method affords citizens the opportunity to obtain a forthright expression by each candidate on the issues, subject to the magnifying glass of questions and debate. And it provides an opportunity to gauge the depth and understanding of the candidates in ways that are simply not possible by using a written questionnaire.

When groups decide to back a candidate on the basis of a method such as this, their level of commitment to him is substantially

"Teachers can play an extremely effective role in politics. . . ."

greater than it would be otherwise.

Following the debate I engaged in with my opponent, the local PACE group endorsed my candidacy and ultimately so did the statewide PACE organization. From the moment of the initial endorsement, some 1,500 teachers went to work in my behalf. They worked long, they worked hard, and they knew what they were doing. They worked in our headquarters and independently. When working on their own, they were always in close contact with my regular campaign staff, so in some respects, I had two staffs, both working in my best interests.

Mary Lou Stefanko was the campaign coordinator for educators, and I cannot adequately describe the extraordinary quality of the job she performed for me. The main thrust of her initial foray into politics was to create a core committee to get information out to other teachers who work in the 50 school districts in Allegheny County. One person in each district was selected for this job, and I know personally that these teachers did get the word out successfully.

Subsequent committees were then organized to set up phone squads, write releases, distribute flyers, and, finally and most importantly, stage a door-to-door campaign that blitzed nearly every home in the 18th District the crucial weekend before Election Day.

Teachers can play an extremely effective role in politics, especially on the telephone. Here their education and training in communicating ideas comes into play forcefully. Answering questions, a major activity in a telephone "boiler room," is nothing new to a teacher. And in a very real sense, such an activity is a form of teaching, the exception being that the "student" is a voter at home instead of a youngster in a classroom.

The state PACE group expanded on these efforts by issuing news releases and distributing mailings to some 80,000 active and nearly 122,000 retired teachers.

The door-to-door canvassing, which ultimately involved all of the 1,500 teacher volunteers, was an impressive example of coordination and planning. Mrs. Stefanko arranged that each participant distribute five pieces of campaign literature in his immediate neighborhood.

This is an excellent method of distribution, because neighbors are not likely to reject another neighbor at the door. Also, this type of canvassing involving so many volunteers makes possible a massive sweep of the district, and I personally can't help but regard it as one of the most decisive elements in my eventual victory.

Through concentrated campaigning in my behalf and in races in other parts of the nation, teachers have proved beyond any doubt that they have a vital role to play in assuring that qualified candidates of their choice will be elected.

Teachers are not afraid to get involved, and that puts to rest once and for all the myth of teachers as scholarly types who are classroom-bound, with little or no influence on the quality of life in their community.

Political activities require an enormous organizational effort and constant monitoring to insure continued successful operation. The encouraging part is that even though this effort is required, the pattern has now been established. Based on my own experience with the Western Region of PACE in Pennsylvania, any candidate who wins teachers' favor is fortunate indeed.

But after all their hard work and dedication during the campaign, teachers should not forget that they must continue to play a vital role long after election night festivities have faded. Teachers can and do play a tremendously important part in working with me and other elected officials at both the national and state levels. They can and should provide lawmakers their valuable insights into how legislation should be shaped to better our children, schools, and our commitment to human development.

By doing so, the contribution any organized educational group can make goes far beyond the normal definition of education. But one must remember that teachers have begun to go far beyond the conventional definition of their professional commitment in their activities and concern for community betterment, and this I applaud and wholeheartedly encourage. □

AN INTERVIEW WITH ALVIN TOFFLER ON

The Role of the Future in Education

By **JUNE GRANT SHANE**
Professor of Education, and
HAROLD G. SHANE
University Professor of Education, Indiana University, Bloomington.

Since the late 1960's, U.S. educators have begun to read and to hear more about "futures research," a new discipline designed to help policymakers choose wisely in terms of their purposes and values among alternative courses of action.

Hundreds of "futures" courses are now offered in schools and colleges; the U.S. Office of Education supports Educational Policy Research Centers at the Stanford Research Institute and at the Syracuse University Research Corporation; and Paul Dickson in his book, Think Tanks, *estimates that government, industry, and the military spend perhaps $25 billion annually to shape future developments that are either sought or anticipated.*

In 1970, with the publication of Future Shock, *Alvin Toffler became an important commentator on the "premature arrival of the future" which has carried us from yesterday to tomorrow in so brief a time as to leave most of us bewildered. A former associate editor of* Fortune, *Mr. Toffler has been a visiting professor at Cornell University and a visiting scholar at the Russell Sage Foundation. In this interview, he discusses the role of the future in education.*

Q. A good many teachers will undoubtedly be as interested in your new book, *Learning for Tomorrow*, as they were in *Future Shock*. Can you tell us how the book came into being?

A. *Learning for Tomorrow* was designed as a manifesto for a new reform movement in education. It is not just a collection of random discursive essays. Every chapter supports in one way or another the thesis that, in education, we are now compelled to make a fundamental break with our ingrained "past orientation," our "past consciousness," if you will.

Although the contributors to the book come from a wide variety of disciplines, all agree that our educational system is rocketing toward disaster and that we cannot redirect it, no matter what innovations we introduce, unless we take a fresh look at the role of the future in education.

Q. The subtitle of your book is "The Role of the Future in Education." What do you see as a meaningful role for education in the future?

A. All of us in the high-technology nations are caught up in one of the great revolutions in human history. We are in the process of creating a new civilization which will demand new ways of life, attitudes, values, and institutions.

The young people in our schools today are going to live in a world radically different from the one we know—and a world that will be undergoing continual and in all likelihood, accelerating change.

In such a society and in such a period of time, I can think of no more important role for education than to serve as one of the great

adaptive mechanisms both for the social system as a whole and for the individual within it.

Q. Do you discuss the future of education in your book?

A. No, it is not a book about the future *of* education. It is about the future *in* education, about the *concept* of the future and the part this concept plays in learning.

The book brings together what will be the two major streams of change in education in the 1970's. One has to do with *action* and action learning—with moving education outside the classroom and involving learners with the real-life activities of society. The other has to do with the role of *time* in learning, with building "future consciousness" into the culture.

In combination, the movement toward action learning and the introduction of the future as a central component of the curriculum will have a profound impact on education.

Q. Let's talk about the first mainstream of change—action learning. Why do you feel this movement is so important?

A. We need to abandon the Neanderthal notion that education takes place only in schools. We all know that education is not just something that happens in our heads. It involves our total biochemistry. Neither does it occur solely within the individual. Education springs from the interplay between the individual and a changing environment.

At present, action learning programs which permit a student to study off campus or outside the classroom are regarded as peripheral to the education process. In the future, we are going to have to regard action learning—a form of socially useful work—as the central theme of education and classroom learning as supportive rather than primary. This suggests a change, not just in the content of education, but in the structure of our institutions and their relationships with society as well.

Q. Would you give us an example of the kind of change that might be necessary?

A. We ought to encourage the organization of groups of learners that include people of all ages who set themselves the tasks of bringing about socially important changes in the community. In this way, action learning would develop what might be called "generation bridges" that would help to do away with our pernicious age segregation.

To function well in a fast-shifting environment, learners must have the chance to do more than receive and store data: They must have, and actually feel that they have, the opportunity to make change occur. This implies a profound shift in the present relationship between educational theory and practice.

Q. You also said that you felt the concept of "futures" should permeate education more thoroughly than it does now. Why do you ascribe so much importance to the study of the future in the curriculum?

A. Although nobody knows what lies ahead, I believe that the future remains open to a considerable degree. Certain trends or forces are at work which are probably going to be difficult for us to modify in any major way, but there are other openings and opportunities which the children we are now educating are going to have the chance to accept or reject. Anticipating these opportunities, speculating about alternatives, and being sensitized to the choices they may face, both personal and public, is an imperative part of their education.

Q. You have said, "All education springs from images of the future." Why do you feel this way when most people would say that education is influenced by tradition and our memories of the past?

A. In a slowly changing society, education tends to focus on the past because there is a general assumption that the past will simply repeat itself in the future. Today, however, when change is extremely rapid, we have to assume that the future will be radically different from the past. And this requires a fresh awareness of the role the future plays in education.

Q. One of your coauthors, Benjamin D. Singer, speaks of the "future-focused role image" or FFRI. What is your interpretation of the FFRI as opposed to the term *self-concept*—a familiar term in education?

A. The idea of self-concept has been very important, but it is a static concept. It centers on the present. The future-focused role image introduces the idea of time into the concept of self-image. It suggests that our thinking is influenced not only by what our self-image is at a given moment but

AN INTERVIEW WITH ALVIN TOFFLER ON

The Role of the Future in Education

also by our image of a future self.

Singer argues that a well-formulated, realistic future-focused role will serve as a highly motivating force in the student. Students characterized by such future-focused role images have an adaptive tool that is not available to those students who lack these role images.

Singer argues, and I agree, that in the absence of a coherent and appropriate future-focused role image, it is difficult for an individual to make consistent decisions and to achieve competence in the present.

Q. We understand you made some inquiries with regard to images of the future held by teenagers. What kinds of futures do they foresee?

A. Well, what I did was by no means either systematic or scientific. I simply went into a classroom and asked a lively group of teenagers to list some events they felt were likely to occur in the future. And in a few minutes I had collected almost 200 forecasts.

Q. What kinds of roles did the students see for themselves in the worlds of tomorrow they envisioned?

A. Nearly all the students tended to leave themselves out of the forecasts—a most significant finding. Of the 193 forecasts, only 16 used the word *I*. Of these, six dealt with death, which is, indeed, an easily forecastable event at some time in everyone's future.

For the most part, the kinds of futures they saw themselves moving into were simply extensions of the kinds of lives that their parents lead today.

They did not foresee that the rather shattering or monumental world events they themselves forecast—including revolutions, technological upheavals, and ecological catastrophes—would have any impact on their own lives. In short, they seemed to make a sharp distinction between a swiftly changing future "out there" and a more or less unchanged personal future.

This suggests the need to refocus the time horizon in education. If our young people are not encouraged to think of the future as something likely to require change in *their own* lives, then we are producing millions of candidates for future shock.

Q. In the 1960's, white America became more conscious of ethnic minorities. Can education help change the black child's image of his future?

A. According to Alvin Poussaint, who is a contributor to *Learning for Tomorrow*, a major impediment to the kind of learning that our system requires is the negative self-image that has been produced in many young black children by the pressures of a color-caste system.

In compensation for this, Dr. Poussaint says, the black community is giving the black child the necessary ego support by saying, "Look, you're OK. It may be those white folks who aren't OK."

I believe we are in no way finished with the problem of achieving an America in which all ethnic groups can find a useful and decent way of life. The black community, itself, is searching for new directions and is no longer as clear about its goals as some of its more militant spokesmen thought in the 1960's.

Confusion in the black community simply parallels the confusion in the surrounding white society as well. I would suggest that our problems can no longer be viewed dualistically in terms of integration *or* segregation, assimilation *or* separatism.

All of us, regardless of class or race, need a sense of self-mastery and of competence. This is extremely difficult for all students, white *or* black, to achieve so long as they are viewed as some homogeneous, monolithic group that can be fitted into a rigid educational machine designed to produce yesterday's model of a middle-class white child.

Q. In the future that you see emerging, will there be a new egalitarianism with regard to sex-roles?

A. Just as our educational system has been implicitly racist, frequently against the best intentions of many teachers and administrators, so I think it has also been sexist.

The sharply distinctive male-female role images that the schools have assigned to students in the past have been responsible for a great deal of damage in our society. We need a movement toward what might be called "role free-

dom" for both men and women.

Q. As roles for women change, what provisions do you see for the caring of children?

A. Clearly, one of the things that the women's rights movement has been saying is that there must be a well-developed, day-care system to free women to take on roles outside the home if they wish to do so.

But, in addition to this, another alternative might present a great opportunity for us. That is to have men play a new role in the home. I think we are going to develop a system under which both men and women alternate in the work force during certain periods in their lives.

Under this system, during some years the wife earns a living and the man stays at home; then she comes back to the home, and he goes back into the labor force. Also, I believe we will see the development of a pattern in which a single job is shared by a husband and wife.

My own hunch is that instead of a single solution to the question of how children are going to be reared, there will be many, many experiments. Out of these will come a few reasonable solutions. Of course, millions of people will stick with the conventional system or attempt to stick with it.

Q. Many people feel that along with other minorities older citizens have been neglected and cast aside as useless. What does the future suggest for this group?

A. Earlier, I talked about building generational bridges and stated that action learning could help. It is bad for people to be segregated by age, just as it is bad for them to be segregated coercively by sex or race. In fact, I believe that the breakdown of age segregation in education is going to be one of the major goals of the 1970's.

Our communities are filled with people at different age levels who have acquired an astonishing variety of useful skills. It seems to me quite feasible for schools—perhaps elementary schools, but certainly secondary schools, universities, and colleges—to match a young learner with an older person who is already practicing the skill that the student wishes to learn.

Today society is undergoing a process of radical fragmentation. It is beginning to require not merely many thousands of new occupations that never existed in the past, but new personality types, new roles, and certainly new human skills. We will need to find new ways to transmit these skills from old to young—and in the opposite direction as well.

Q. How do you envision that education could help match young learners with mature learners?

A. No school system can offer a curriculum sufficiently diverse to provide all the skills the society needs without tapping the information now stored in the craniums of tens of thousands of nonteachers. Many of these persons actually could turn out to be superteachers if we arranged learning appropriately.

No child should ever go through his early educational years without having the opportunity to meet a person engaged in an occupation in which the child might be interested. To deprive the child of this is to deprive him of an important step in the formation of his future-focused role image.

We need a system of "community mentorships" with tens of thousands of "adjunct teachers and professors" woven throughout society—a system in which students are introduced to people in the community and regularly visit them in their offices and homes, to question them and learn from them. Many people in our society who are capable of teaching many things are now cut off from the educational system by what I would regard as false notions of professionalism and would welcome the chance to be useful educationally.

Q. In recent years there has been deepening concern about moral education for the future. Do you think schools have a responsibility to help alleviate the present value crises?

A. Very much so. We have ducked the question of values in education for the last generation or more. There are quite natural and understandable reasons for this. It took a tremendous struggle on the part of progressive educators to loosen ecclesiastical and political controls on our school systems. This struggle to free the schools from the imposition of traditional orthodox values by the church and state, however, occurred during the period of what might be called "naive scientism."

Q. Are you referring to the so-

called scientific or educational testing movement of the 1920's?

A. No. I am saying that this struggle took place during a period when the dominant culture looked to science to solve its problems. One of the spillovers from science into education was the notion of value-free education—neutral education.

Now we are a lot wiser about this. We realize that values are inculcated and transmitted in virtually any interaction between human beings. Therefore, despite our attempts to provide "objective" curriculum or neutral cognitive materials, we find it cannot be done. This being the case, we cannot escape the issue of values.

Q. How would you suggest that we go about facing the issue?

A. I am not arguing for a return to the past—to the heavy-handed inculcation of orthodoxy or, for that matter, orthodox anti-orthodoxy. We need to move the whole issue to a higher level. Rather than inculcating a simple set of well-defined values—which may or may not be acceptable in a highly diverse society and which may or may not be appropriate in our rapidly changing world—we would do better to inculcate the value of knowing one's own values.

Our society is in desperate need of institutions that will help everyone, not just youngsters, sort out their own conflicting and confused value systems. People cannot make consistent and competent decisions in pursuit of their own futures, if their personal value systems are riddled with contradictions.

It seems to me that one of the most important forms of assistance that we can give people to help them cope with rapid change is to help them clarify their own values.

It is a crime against learners to make them go through the educational process without at some point—if not at all points—encouraging them to ask themselves some serious questions, such as what life is for, why they pursue one direction instead of another, and why some things seem more valuable to them than others.

The purpose of introducing action learning and the future into education is to help produce people better able to cope with change in a highly change-filled society. Coping with change implies making decisions, and decisions cannot be made without criteria. Criteria, in turn, are based on implicit or explicit values.

As society undergoes the turmoil of a cultural and social revolution, which is, in fact, what I think is now happening, the underlying value system begins to change. As our society fragments, the value system, too, fragments; the consensus splits. We begin to move to what superficially seems like an anything-goes society.

I would urge all educators to begin personally to face value questions and then to introduce them into the classroom.

Q. You seem to feel strongly about this issue of values, Mr. Toffler. Have you had some personal experiences which strengthen this conviction?

A. Yes. Back in 1966 in my first course on the future, I asked my students to tell me how the course had affected them or whether it had affected them at all. The responses indicated to me that talking about the future raises some very sensitive value questions.

For example, if we face serious problems of overpopulation, should I have more than one child or even one child? With certain kinds of technology implying this or that threat to the environment, should I pursue my career as an engineer?

These kinds of questions became the center of preoccupation when the students wrote about how the course had affected them. Some thing then began to dawn on me. the need for me to help make *implicit* values in that classroom *explicit.*

For example, in a discussion of population, when an individual says that the globe should support no more than so many billion human beings, he is making more than a statistical statement. Any such statement is related to his values with respect to resource consumption and implies a value statement about what one regards as a minimum level of human subsistence.

There are opportunities in every subject to extract the value issues hidden behind what on the outside looks like an "objective" mass of information. So I would argue strongly than an emphasis on futures implies not only an emphasis on *possible* and *probable* futures but a very strong emphasis also on *preferable* futures. And at that point we are talking about values. □

The Study of Religion in the Public Schools

By JAMES V. PANOCH
Field Coordinator, Public Education Religion Studies Center, Wright State University, Dayton, Ohio.

Up to the early 1960's, laws in many states and localities required the public schools to conduct daily religious exercises, often including recitation of the Lord's Prayer and a reading from the Bible, in the belief that such activities were not only legal but important educational functions. Then in 1962 the U.S. Supreme Court said in *Abington* v. *Schempp* that laws requiring such practices violated the First Amendment's command that government maintain strict neutrality toward religion.

Many people want these exercises continued and advocate Constitutional amendments. Others have been just plain confused.

In fact, however, the very opinion that told schools what they could not do with respect to religion also suggested what they might do about it. Justice Tom Clark, writing the majority opinion in *Schempp,* said:

". . . one's education is not complete without a study of comparative religion or the history of religion and its relationship to the advancement of civilization. It certainly may be said that the Bible is worthy of study for its literary and historic qualities. Nothing we have said here indicates that such study of the Bible or of religion, when presented objectively as part of a secular program of education, may not be effected consistent with the First Amendment."

Note that Justice Clark repeatedly uses the word "study." Study is what a public school may do with religion and religious literature, including the Bible.

Then what may a public school *not* do? A public school may offer the *study* of religion as part of a secular educational program, but it may not require the *practice* of religion. The practice of religion would include, I should think, a prayer, a devotional exercise, a bar mitzvah, a communion, a baptism, or a mass.

The court did not say that these practices of religion may not go on in a school, but rather that the school may not *require* such practices. Any citizen, including a student, may practice his religion anywhere, including a public school, so long as he respects the rights of his fellow citizens and carries out the function of the institution. (Every teacher is familiar with students' rights today.)

However, if the practice of religion is denied the *sponsorship* of the public school, the *study* of religion certainly is not. The study of things is what education is all about.

But if a public school *may* include the study of religion in its curriculum, is there any reason why it should? No school could possibly do all the things it may do. Maybe religion, being controversial, could be one of the items most easily eliminated. That is exactly what has happened.

Certainly a public school ought not shy away from controversy. The foreword to *Controversial Issues in the Classroom,* published by NEA in 1961, states, "The instructional efforts of the classroom teacher may cause controversy in many fields of school study. The real problem, however, is not to avoid controversy but to develop policies and methods for dealing with it in a fair and constructive manner."

The American Association of School Administrators in the report of its Commission on Religion in the Public Schools, chaired by Sidney Marland in 1964, stated: "A curriculum which ignored religion would itself have serious religious implications. It would seem to proclaim that religion has not been as real in men's lives as health or politics or economics. By omission, it would appear to deny that religion has been and is important in man's history—a denial of the obvious. In day-by-day practice, the topic cannot be avoided. As an integral part of man's culture, it must be included."

Justice Brennan, in a concurring opinion in *Schempp,* observed, "Nothing in the Constitution compels the organs of government to be blind to what everyone else perceives—that religious differences among Americans have important and pervasive implications for our society."

The first reaction wave to the prayer and Bible-reading decision of the U.S. Supreme Court began to subside when it became evident that the public school both may and should include the study of religion in the curriculum. But how? Up until recent years, few materials were prepared specifically for the study of religion in the public schools. And what was

available was either poor or inadequate or both.

Lack of materials gave rise to the second reaction wave—the quest for the production of curricular materials designed specifically for the study of religion in a public school. Admittedly, this quest was not of the same magnitude as the scientific splurge that followed Sputnik, but there was an undercurrent that produced a sizable wave nonetheless. A list of materials riding the crest of that wave would include the following items designed specifically for student use in the classroom:

Religious Freedom: Minority Faiths and Majority Rule (American Education Publications, Education Center, Columbus, OH 43216) is one in a series of supplemental social studies units for grades 7-12 produced by the Social Studies Project of Harvard University. General contemporary and historical background material is given, followed by a study of three specific Supreme Court cases involving compulsory attendance (Amish), the salute to the flag (Jehovah's Witnesses), and prayer and Bible reading. A teachers guide is available.

Religious Issues in American Culture (Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., Sand Hill Rd., Menlo Park, CA 94025), the first of a three-volume series on religious issues in social studies, consists of 10 supplemental units for secondary level social studies produced by the Religion-Social Studies Project at Florida State University. Each unit analyzes a religious controversy through directed readings of primary sources. Teachers manuals are available.

The Bible Reader (Bruce Books, 8701 Wilshire Blvd., Beverly Hills, CA 90211) is a special edition of the Bible designed for public school use by a team of ecumenical scholars. Key passages are presented in various translations with introductory articles, notes, and essays. A teachers guide with lesson plans is available.

Religious Literature of the West (Augsburg Publishing House, 426 S. 5th St., Minneapolis, MN 55415) is a semester course for the high school produced under the direction of the Religious Studies Department of Pennsylvania State University. Selections of the sacred literature of Christians, Jews, and Muslims are studied.

Social Science Program (Allyn and Bacon, 470 Atlantic Ave., Boston 02210) is a complete K-12 social studies curriculum being produced by the Educational Research Council of America. Religion is one of six integrating themes around which the curriculum is built.

God and Man Narratives (University of Nebraska Press, 901 N. 17th St., Lincoln, NE 68508) is one in a series of units from the complete English curriculum 1-12 produced by the Nebraska Curriculum Development Center. Primitive, Biblical, and American Indian religions are included. This particular unit is for the seventh grade; other religious units are available for other grade levels. Teacher guides are available.

Bible Reading and Prayer in Public Schools (National Council for the Social Studies "Judgment" Study No. 1, Scholastic Magazines, 50 W. 44th St., New York 10036) is one of a series of supplemental units for the high school produced by the Amherst Project. The historical development of contemporary issues dealing with the relation between church and state is studied. A teachers guide is available. Other religious units are available.

The Image of the Jew in Literature and *Jews and Their Religion* (Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith, 315 Lexington Ave., New York 10016) are two programs, each of which is composed of a series of units on Jewish life and literature for inclusion in the social studies and literature curriculums. Included are films, annotated bibliographies, supplementary material, discussion topics, suggested projects, model instruction units, and teacher guides.

A Sequential Curriculum in Anthropology (Anthropology Curriculem Project, University of Georgia, Athens 30601) includes religion as one of the eight topics in the primary unit, the "Concept of Culture."

Trailmarks of Liberty (Houghton Mifflin Company, 110 Tremont St., Boston 02107) is a series of three programs, one each for the elementary, junior high, and senior high levels, designed to acquaint the student with the important issues in American history through a study of key court cases. (The school prayer and Bible-reading decision is included.) The Law in American Society Foundation developed the programs. Unit titles include "Freedom of Belief" and "Freedom of Religion."

Several titles in the *Communities Around the World* series, developed by the University of Minnesota's Social Studies Curriculum Project, describe practices of primitive or Eastern religions. Paper copies of the following teachers resource units are available through ERIC: *A Village in India* (fourth grade), ED 054011, $9.87; *The Trobriand Islanders* (fourth grade), ED 054013, $6.58; *Manus Community of the South Pacific* (third grade), ED 051030, $6.58. Microfiche copies of each unit are 65¢ apiece.

Order copies from ERIC Document Reproduction Service (EDRS), Leasco Information Products, Inc., P.O. Drawer O, Bethesda, MD 20014. Order by ED number and

A public school may offer the study of religion as part of a secular educational program, but it may not sponsor the practice of religion.

specify whether copies are to be paper (PC) or microfiche (M/F). Enclose check or money order payable to EDRS.

Religious-Philosophical Systems (Rand McNally and Co., Box 7600, Chicago 60680) is a seven-lesson unit developed as part of a world history program designed to permit learning through inquiry by examining some of the values and beliefs that have affected the lives of men. Students receive condensed and descriptive information through a wide variety of materials by which seven religious-philosophical systems are analyzed. The unit considers the influence of religion upon daily life, social practices, the arts, personal values, and church-state relations.

Summer Institute on Teaching the Bible in Secondary English (Sycamore Hall 201, Indiana University, Bloomington 47401) is a teacher education project that has produced excellent materials: a book, *Teaching the Old Testament in English Class* (by James S. Ackerman and others; paper, $4.95), and a packet of mimeographed materials, including study guides for specific texts, suggested student projects, bibliographies, and audiovisual listings. Write directly to the Institute for the packet, and for the book to Indiana University Press, Tenth and Morton Sts., Bloomington 47401.

Liberty and the Law (Educational Books Division, Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, NJ 07632) is a series of supplemental units on the Bill of Rights that includes "The Flag Salute Cases" and "Church, State, and Education." A teachers manual is available.

Asian Thought (Field Educational Publications, 2400 Hanover St., Palo Alto, CA 94304) is a group of units for the secondary school, the first of which are Confucianism, Taoism, and Buddhism.

Jewish Studies (American Association for Jewish Education, 101 Fifth Ave., New York 10003) is designed to tell the neglected story of Jewish history and culture through electives, mini-courses, and special units. The project is a joint program with the United Federation of Teachers of New York City.

Major Concepts for the Social Studies (Social Studies Curriculum Center, Syracuse University, Syracuse, NY 13210) identifies major concepts from the social sciences and allied disciplines that appear to be appropriate for elementary and secondary programs in social studies. Many concepts have religious connotations, including culture, morality and choice, secularization, and dignity of man.

Peace Is Possible (Grossman Publishers, 625 Madison Ave., New York 10022) is a senior high school unit that includes the contributions of religious leaders.

God and Government (Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., Sand Hill Rd., Menlo Park, CA 94025) is one in a series of supplemental units for the high school produced by the Amherst Project. The historical development and contemporary issues of the relation between church and state are studied. A teachers guide is available.

Man in Society and *U.S. Supreme Court* (Chicago Tribune Educational Services, 654 Tribune Tower, Chicago 60611) are two of a series of units that present topics in newspaper fashion. "Man in Society" deals with eight major world religions, stressing ethics and contemporary thought. "U.S. Supreme Court" includes a presentation of the school prayer decision. A multimedia approach is suggested, using filmstrips, recordings, and discussion guides.

The Bible as Literature (Webster Division, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1221 Ave. of the Americas, New York 10020) is a textbook for a high school course in the Bible as literature. The book contains selected Bible portions with explanatory notes. The literary forms examined include poetry, songs, stories, and speeches.

Ethics in Perspective and Practice (Oceana Publications, Inc., Dobbs Ferry, NY 10522) is a course designed to encourage individual thinking. It considers types of ethics, historical viewpoints, and contemporary issues.

The study of religion in a public school curriculum is legal, and the needed materials are available. A new national organization, the Public Education Religion Studies Center (PERSC), is gathering and disseminating methods and materials to encourage and facilitate increased and improved teaching about religion.

PERSC—a joint program of Wright State University and Religious Heritage of America, Inc., of Washington, DC—is located at Wright State University (Dayton, OH 45431) and is guided by a 30-member Professional Advisory Council. The Center invites your inquiries.

In the preface to its soon-to-be-released *Handbook on Religion Studies in the Curriculum,* retired Supreme Court Justice Tom C. Clark, author of the school prayer and Bible-reading decision, writes, "The Public Education Religion Studies Center offers a most exciting opportunity . . . to prove that the study of religion is a legitimate function of public education. . . . The Center will fill a void that we have permitted to exist too long in our public school system." □

Bible Lit students practice their own folk song about the exodus from Egypt.

Bible Literature in the Curriculum

By RUTH D. HALLMAN
Chairman, Department of English, W. E. Stebbins High School, Mad River Township, Ohio.

My senior students were reading Fielding's *Joseph Andrews.* In an early scene in the book, Lady Booby attempts to seduce Joseph, whereupon he seeks to bolster his resistance by recalling the virtues of the Joseph whose name he bears. He reminds the reader that this other Joseph underwent similar temptations.

As we discussed that scene, I asked the class to explain the allusion. They responded with blank stares. I suggested that it might refer to the Biblical Joseph. Half the class thought I was implying a parallel with the Mary and Joseph story of the New Testament; some of them were offended, thinking that I must therefore be likening Mary to Lady Booby.

I decided that I'd better be more direct, so I mentioned the Old Testament story of Joseph and his brothers. A few seemed to have heard of this Joseph, but none could see any connection with Joseph Andrews. In desperation I referred to Potiphar's wife. "Who? Never heard of her." At this point I had to tell them the Bible story before moving on with *Joseph Andrews.*

I had had similar experiences before—Milton's reference to the parable of the talents in his sonnet, "On His Blindness," Keats's allusion to the story of Ruth in "Ode to a Nightingale," the imagery in Dylan Thomas's "Fern Hill" or in T. S. Eliot's "Journey of the Magi," Hardy's use of the Saul and David story in *The Mayor of Casterbridge,* and many more.

By this time, I also knew that my students were unable to recognize or understand allusions to the Bible in even the commonplace of advertising, cartoons, editorials, or news headlines. Furthermore, I realized that because of their unfamiliarity with the Bible they were missing a major dimension of much of the art and music around them. So when our English Department began planning an English curriculum of nine-week elective courses, I suggested that we provide a course which would give our students a background in frequently encountered Bible stories, characters, symbols, and quotations.

Others in the Department agreed and remarked that the students were having similar difficulties with allusions to mythology. We decided to attempt to answer both these needs with one course that we would call Backgrounds for Literature.

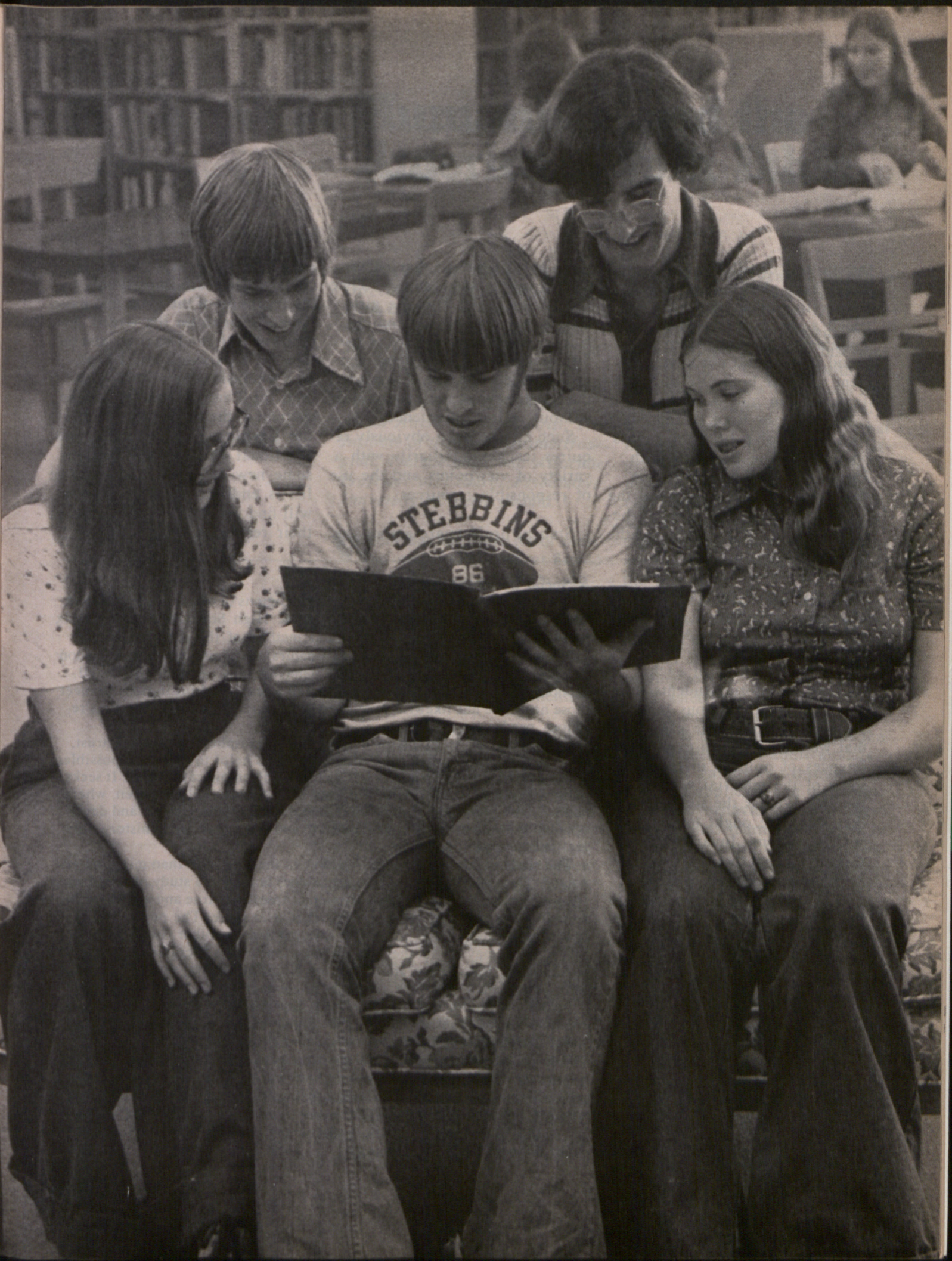
As the course took shape, we envisioned it would have a broad appeal. It was to be a course that would attract the less able students because of the interesting stories and activities but would also provide the needed background for the more serious students of literature. Since the new curriculum was ungraded, we would have a mixture of tenth, eleventh, and twelfth graders.

That first year, enough students signed up for the course to make four sections, two classes in each of the two quarters in which it was offered. Another teacher agreed to help teach the class, and the two of us began reading everything we could find that might help us. Because it proved to be much easier to find materials for teaching mythology, we decided to begin with the Greek and Roman myths, leaving the Bible literature until the second half of the nine weeks.

Since the kids enjoyed the myths, and we had plenty of material about them, we kept postponing the Bible. But even though their interest in stories of the gods and goddesses was high, students began asking when we were going to get into the Bible. Finally we had them bring their Bibles to class—whatever translation they had available—and we spent a couple of weeks reading the most familiar stories in Genesis.

As the quarter ended, it was easy to see that they felt they had barely started. For our part, we realized that they were still going to be as lost as ever with many of the Biblical allusions they would come across. True, we had spent considerably more than half the course on mythology, and we could divide the quarter more equitably next time, but we didn't want to omit any of the myths we had studied; in fact, we wanted to expand that part of the course to include myths of other cultures.

It gradually became obvious that we needed separate courses in mythology and in Bible literature. From that point on, Bible Lit has been firmly entrenched as a part of our English curriculum. The course is rarely the same from one class to another, since we try to remain responsive to the interests of


STEBBINS
86

the students enrolled in the course and to keep alert to new ideas. In answer to student requests, we added a separate section in New Testament literature when we found that we did not have sufficient time for both Old and New Testament in nine weeks.

We teach the Book of Job along with MacLeish's *J.B.* in our class on tragedy; the Book of Ruth, Paul's essay on love from his letter to the Corinthians, and the Song of Songs are all part of the course entitled "Literature and the Many Aspects of Love."

As for controversial ideas or interpretations, we have never had any real difficulties in that area —perhaps because we always anticipate the possibility.

At the beginning of each course, we inform students that many different religious beliefs are represented in the class and that we therefore can expect differences of opinion in regard to some of the material we will be reading. We ask the students what they think we ought to do about such situations. Invariably their response is that they want to know about other people's beliefs.

It is an easy step from there to the agreement that we will not try to decide who is right, that we will respect one another's beliefs, and that we will try to become informed as to what scholars of varying viewpoints say.

Questions do arise, of course. I remember one girl who was upset when we pointed out the two accounts of creation as recorded in Genesis. We looked at them as objectively as possible and let the students draw their own conclusions as to whether they were written by the same author. Since we did not insist that the girl accept the accounts as coming from two different writers at two different periods in history, she was satisfied and could consider the conjectures of various scholars without feeling threatened.

Such an approach obviously requires teacher familiarity with a variety of viewpoints and the use of responsible resources.

Student projects are among the most rewarding aspects of the course. These are limited only by the ingenuity of the class and have included "man on the street" interviews with the Israelites just before their exodus from Egypt, plus exclusive interviews with both the Pharoah and Moses; an account of the exodus written from the Egyptian point of view; and additional chapters that present some new aspect of a story. The list is endless, and new classes will find yet other ways to express their responses to Bible Lit. □

A Social Studies Approach

In teaching a course called History of Religions (a one-semester elective offered to juniors and seniors at Arapahoe High School for the past six years), we have adopted the historical method of the social sciences.

We look upon religion not only as a natural and a universal phenomenon but also as dynamic social/personal behavior. Just as man has social, economic, legal, and political needs and has developed institutions to meet those needs, he has likewise developed religious institutions to meet his religious needs.

It is necessary to maintain a classroom atmosphere of mutual trust, respect, and impartiality. The historical method helps to make this possible, if one applies it in an impersonal, objective, and empirical manner. It seeks natural explanations for natural events. Our course explores when, where, and why religious beliefs were formulated; their origin, growth, and development; the values desired and achieved; and their effect upon history, society, and personalities.

The students are much more objective in their outlook than might be expected. They readily recognize that one does not begin a study of world religions by claiming that his own religion is absolutely true and all others absolutely false. No one's belief or disbelief is at stake. The purpose of the course is not to validate one belief and invalidate another. In religion, one man's belief may be another's blasphemy; one man's sacrament, another's superstition. Both the crude fetishism of the primitive and the spiritual affirmations of a saint are religious phenomena.

Moses, Mohammed, Rama, Buddha, Krishna, and Christ receive equal treatment in the course. They are all divine names to their devotees and, hence, objects of religious reverence and dedication.

The course does not raise the question as to whose beliefs are true and whose are false but rather explores how and in what ways this reality in which we are all immersed as human beings helps men all over the world attain a richer and fuller life. Religious views are examined, not imposed.

—Allah R. Samuel, *teacher of religion and philosophy, Arapahoe Senior High School, Littleton, Colorado.*

Humanism and the American Work Ethic

By **ERWIN R. SMARR, M.D.**
Director, Professional Education, Philadelphia Psychiatric Center and Haverford (Pennsylvania) State Hospital, and Clinical Assistant Professor of Psychiatry, Thomas Jefferson University, and
PHILIP J. ESCOLL, M.D.
Senior Attending Psychiatrist, The Institute of the Pennsylvania Hospital, Philadelphia, and Associate Professor of Clinical Psychiatry, University of Pennsylvania.

Work has been the lot of most of mankind always, at first to wrest survival from nature and since then to improve the conditions of life. While a minority of people have acquired the means to forego a working life, the vast majority in the developed countries are dependent upon the benefits of work.

For the middle classes in America, work became a value that was incorporated into the character of decency, respectability, and moral rectitude. The benefits of a work ethic in a middle-class value system were the attainment of future security and social status better than that of one's parents and a life-style of self-reliance rather than familial dependency.

Even though efforts to escape work have been present here as elsewhere, nonetheless, Americans have acquired the worldwide, often unenvied, reputation of being the hardest working people on earth. The attainment of this productive capacity in society and its members is not easy, for it requires a huge educational system and a social value system geared toward training youth away from the primacy of the pleasure principle and toward the "work personality."

While the common assumption is that people work because they have to, those who deal with the mentally ill and with persons who have other forms of vocational disability know only too well that the mere need to work does not get these people working. The intrapsychic change that must take place before they are actually able to work often requires a recapitulation of the whole development process that did not succeed the first time.

The point we wish to make is that the work personality is the end result of a long educational process and an upbringing in a work-valuing society. Children want to work when they see adults in the society enjoying their working life. It is principally through the identification with adult models and their values and through the practiced application of their attitudes and behaviors that young children first learn to do work.

The same is still true later when, as adolescents, they approach the time of change from childhood to youth. In taking on an adult identity, they usually choose the working role models that fit their coming needs.

As Erikson put it, the compact majority ordinarily combines the existent "dominant techniques with their identity development and become what they do." However, we have just been through about six years of a social revolution in which the rebellious youth culture attacked and rejected a

good many of the values that make up the patterns of American middle-class life-style.

The humanistic revolution had many targets and was itself a coming together of both the overprivileged and the underprivileged, who, to quote Erikson again, "in revolutionary times . . . often reach out to each other, both being marginal to the vast consolidation of the compact majority."

Most of the unquestionable values of the dominant society came under attack: education, technology, industry, government per se, capitalism, the war, science, money, comfort, security, the worthwhileness of work—indeed, the worthwhileness of effort at all and even the worthwhileness of keeping sane.

In place of an ethic of reason and responsibility, there was substituted the ethic of pleasure and responsibility only to oneself. Nothing of the past had any relevance. All models of adulthood were unworthy of imitation, for they represented a life-style of slavery to empty materialism in the service of a depersonalization of the human being under the heel of an ever-growing bureaucratic-technological monstrosity.

The violence of the social revolution has abated, perhaps because of the counterviolence it provoked, the aging of its leaders, and the ineffectiveness of its methods. The relative calm at present permits us to survey the scene with less perplexity and to sort out a little better what was racial, what was economic, what was affluence, and what was purely political, and what was sheer adolescence.

The whole movement was not without its effects, however. Witness the influence it has indeed had upon the educational system, the religions in America, minority rights, women's rights, the freedom of greater choice in individual life-styles, and perhaps even politics and government indirectly. Although it has hardly affected at all the available patterns of working life to which it took such objection, it has had a growing influence on attitudes toward work, to which we will refer later.

During the height of the humanistic revolt, we studied the personality patterns of middle-class adolescents and youth, both those observable at large and those under clinical care, noting that during that period adolescent turmoil and hospitalization had increased to proportions never seen before.

Indeed, the whole field of adolescent psychiatry has burgeoned over the past decade. Can this be pure coincidence, or must not this be an indicator of the disorganizing effects of the disorganization of social structures? Blos described this social disorganization as a "psychonoxious influence" that contributed to adolescent psychopathology.

During this period, we observed (in addition to the humanistic flowerhood of youthful elite described by Keniston) adolescents in hospitals displaying all ranges of personality pattern pathology and ego weakness. An attitude common to all was a disdain for work, not only among those for whom work was quite unnecessary because of family affluence but also among those for whom it was necessary.

Moreover, when one got below the surface, one also found that frequently there was no ability to work—no capacity for commitment to tasks that were necessary and not pleasurable, no ability to identify with aims and goals that go beyond immediacy. As far as these young people were concerned, the social aim of producing work personalities had failed.

Probably these patients represent the sickest end of a spectrum but they were all part of a social movement that had turned against the American work ethic. Undoubtedly, those with the best ego integration will in the future adapt in some ways to reality, while those who are too damaged will join the population of chronic patients and welfare-dependent unemployed.

The winding down of the war in Vietnam and the subsidence of violent militancy have not changed the social issues these adolescents reflected: the fragmentation of life (of which working life is a prime component) into dehumanized and demeaning processes not worthy of a lifetime of effort; the separation of man from the product of his work.

Moreover, it is not only the affluent middle-class youth who now rebel against this life. There has also been an awakening among the masses of blue-collar workers, whose financial responsibilities to family tie them to their meaningless jobs. The dissatisfaction with the endless rat race is now surfacing more and more. We believe that the present quietude is illusory, born of a temporary relief from the conflict of the past six years.

It is said we are at the end of a historical period and that the character of the next period is not yet discernible. The humanistic revolt attempted to point the way by announcing the needs: the next era *should* be concerned with rehumanizing the quality of life in the post-technocratic society, rather than allowing the mere proliferation of the techniques of the possible to dictate what human

beings shall become. The problems of work need to be looked at within this context.

Young people need adult models whose lives are examples of sufficient satisfaction at work and at home, in a society of sufficient safety and fairness, to inspire emulation in youth and to provide youth with the bridges needed to become like those adults. These identifications are the necessary lodestone to *becoming,* around which the partial identifications of earlier life phases can coalesce in practical ways, and against which opposing tendencies can be tested and abandoned.

Without this lodestone, youth have only each other, and their fantasies, to identify with. We have just seen what happens to a generation of young people who reject their adult models as unworthy and who cannot, therefore, resolve their residual childhood ambivalences and hostilities.

A huge proportion of our youth are now being channeled into more and more years of schooling, both because our technological society has fewer and fewer places for semiskilled persons and because except for the military, there is no way to absorb this population into the working force. All this acts to prevent the attainment of adult independence until a later and later age.

It was already evident in the fifties that adolescents had no useful place in our society. And, eventually, it was the counterculture that compensated them emotionally for their functional expulsion. Vocationally, however, nothing has happened to improve the problem. In order to feel decent self-respect, youth must be able to work and contribute, but where is work to be found?

In the next era, society must address itself, somehow, to providing our vast numbers of youth with meaningful work roles through which they can actualize their humanistic ideals in practical ways. President Kennedy grasped some of this need and deployed it constructively in the Peace Corps idea, but this has been useful only to college graduates. VISTA does not seem to be broad enough to make a dent in the problem.

Yet so many unmet needs cry out for organized effort to fulfill them. Despite our concerns about the energy crisis, still, our cities must be regenerated and beautified; parks must be provided and maintained and kept safe; streams must be cleaned and made into recreational resources; forests must be preserved and rebuilt.

Our human resources must be cared for too. In fact, with the needs of society moving less toward the consumption of even more unneeded goods and more toward social services, we will approach a time when half the society will need to be employed taking care of the other half. Fortunately, these caretaking occupations provide just the kinds of fulfillment of humanistic ideals that both youth and society need.

Manpower development in the country is now entering an era when the needs of society and of youth will no longer harmonize happily with the needs of private industry. The calls from the White House to solve our problems by simply having everyone return to the good old American work ethic show no recognition of what the trouble is all about. As we see it, the economic and professional frontiers of opportunity are no longer expanding. The "developed" society has now closed in upon its young and makes them superfluous unless they aspire only to continue the status quo.

The role of the work ethic must change as society changes. We must find ways to train and employ masses of our young people in satisfying work roles that do not require prolonged, expensive college educations. Vocational training at subprofessional and paraprofessional levels should be promoted by governmental programming, because in many fields these are needs that are not in the area of private interest to fulfill. Yet we have been witnessing an attempt by the Administration to reduce funds for vocational education, along with an elimination of the humanistic effort!

We must look at the problems of work and of underemployment not mainly in terms of numbers and jobs but in terms of the suitability of work as a life-style. It is not just the poor who must be provided with jobs and enabled to believe in the worthwhileness of a work ethic. The liberal youth of the middle-class have now become ideologically impoverished and unable to believe in the old work ethic.

We have the means of making our country a happier place in which to live and work, but we have yet to organize our resources toward the qualitative ends. The youth are powerless to do it, and they see the adults as not only powerless but either unaware or opposed. Does this have to be? Do we not now more than ever need to push for renewed emphasis on humanism in American life—this time not only from a base of youthful revolt but, rather, from an enlightened adult dedication? □

The "Real" World of Television

By LARRY GROSS
Associate Professor, Annenberg School of Communications, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia.

Imagine a hermit who lives in a room which is linked with the outside world via a television set that can receive only dramatic programs. His knowledge of the world would be built exclusively out of the images and "facts" which he could glean from an unending diet of fictional events. Clearly, the importance of the various elements of his "reality" would be determined by the frequency of their appearance and the centrality of their roles.

Similarly, the ways in which constituents of the television world are portrayed and organized would be the only source of his knowledge of their value and of their interrelationships. The population of his world would be that of television drama; his expectations and judgments would be derived from the conventions of plot and outcome that dominate television drama; his view of human nature would be based on the shallow psychology of central-casting characterization.

While few are likely to find themselves solely dependent upon television drama for their knowledge of the world, it seems worth asking how much an average adult's view of the world actually resembles that of the hypothetical hermit. And, possibly more important, how similar will a child's view be, given his relatively limited exposure to the complexities of the "real" world and his steady diet of exposure to the world of television?

The dominant stylistic convention of Western narrative art—novels, plays, films, TV dramas—is that of representational realism. However stereotyped television plots are, viewers assume that they take place against a backdrop of the real world. Characters must behave as normal people would in most situations. When the impossible does occur, it will often be treated as if it, too, were part of a natural order in which nuns can fly and horses speak.

If the premise of realism in television drama seems a bit thin for sophisticated adult viewers, it is certainly more plausible for children, who are not as skilled at discerning the evidence of "poetic" license.

A doctoral dissertation completed recently by James Murphy at the Annenberg School has shown the extent to which children will respond to a story shown them in the form of photographic slides by stating that it was "real"—that it really happened. The reasons the children give for their judgments tend to be based precisely on the assumption of realism. They "know" the story is real because in real life they have seen the kinds of things that are in the story.

The basic topography of TV drama offers to the unsuspecting viewer a continuous stream of "facts" and impressions. The premise of realism is a Trojan horse which carries within it a highly selective and purposeful image of the facts of life.

What are the lessons of this hidden curriculum, and are they indeed learned by the unsuspecting pupils of television? These are the questions which George Gerbner (my co-researcher) and I are currently addressing in an attempt to analyze the critical symbolic messages of television drama and to trace their impact on the beliefs and values of its audiences.

The central realities which television depicts may well be those dealing with power. Power can be expressed in many ways, only the crudest of which is violence and its outcomes. The basic reality of the television world is the reality of the American middle-class establishment; its morality is the conventional and rigid Sunday-school morality of the middle class; its heroes and villains are those of the great silent majority.

Power and success are the province of the white, the male, the middle/upper-middle class. If the ability to inflict violence without suffering it in return is a measure of power, such power is held by whites against nonwhites and by males against females. Although the messages of television are often more subtle, the primary message is always the centrality of the white male. In fact, the most glaring discrepancy between the television world and the viewer's image of reality is probably the four-to-one preponderance of men over women in evening television

(Continued on page 89)

The research reported in this paper is part of the "Cultural Indicators" project (NIMH Grant #MH21196 to George Gerbner and Larry Gross) currently being conducted at the Annenberg School of the University of Pennsylvania.

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THE ENVIRONMENT

All Around You: An Environmental Study Guide. Student workbook provides questions and activities (e.g., mapping) to help youngsters, grades 3-8, understand urban, rural, and natural environments. Includes teachers guide pages and bibliographies for young and advanced readers. Pages are loose-leaf, punched for three-ring binders, and may be photocopied for student use. 1973. 177 pp.

For free single copies, individual teachers should write on school stationery to Environmental Education Coordinator, Bureau of Land Management (220), U.S. Dept. of the Interior, Washington, DC 20240. Multiple copies for sale by Supt. Doc. at $2.35 each. S/N 2411/00043. C/N I 53.7/2:En 8/973.

The Campaign for Cleaner Air. Marvin Zeldin. Public Affairs Pamphlet No. 494. Describes the federal Clean Air Act of 1970, appraises progress made in air pollution control and its costs, and discusses future prospects. 1973. 28 pp. 35¢. Quantity discounts available. Public Affairs Committee, 381 Park Ave., South, New York 10016.

GUIDANCE

Need a Lift? The American Legion's annual handbook telling high school students about sources of career information, loans, scholarships, and other financial aid for all students; and cataloging state educational benefits. Twenty-third ed., 1973. 132 pp. 50¢. Prepaid or in quantities of 100 or more, 30¢. The American Legion, Department S.P.O. Box 1055, Indianapolis, IN 46-206.

SCIENCE

Aerospace Bibliography. Sixth ed. An annotated list of recent books, references, periodicals, and other materials about space flight and space science. Prepared for NASA by the National Aerospace Education Assn. Reading levels indicated by code letters. 1972. 116 pp. $1.25. S/N 3300-0460. C/N NAS 1.19:48/3. Supt. Doc.

Apollo 17 at Taurus-Littrow. Dozens of pictures in color and black and white and a nontechnical narrative describe the final Apollo mission from launch to splashdown. 1973. 32 pp. $1.25. S/N 3300-00480. C/N NAS 1.19:102. Supt. Doc.

Science for Society: A Bibliography. An aid to all who are concerned with social problems arising from advances in the technological applications of scientific knowledge especially students and teachers in secondary schools and colleges. References are about equally divided between books and periodical literature. 1973. $1 (75¢ in multiples of 10). Education Dept., American Association for the Advancement of Science, 1776 Massachusetts Ave., N.W., Washington, DC 20036.

Skylab Experiments. Two volumes in NASA's Skylab Education Program, designed to inform the high school teacher about scientific principles applied and experiments undertaken in Skylab investigations. Vol. I: *Physical Science, Solar Astronomy.* 1973. 63 pp. $1.25. S/N 3300-00510. C/N NAS 1.19:110/v.1. Vol. II: *Remote Sensing of Earth Resources.* 1973. 83 pp. $1.25. S/N 3300-00512. C/N NAS 1.19:111. Both from Supt. Doc.

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1. Sales Through Dealers and Carriers, Street Vendors, and Counter Sales	—	—
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I certify that the statements made by me above are correct and complete.

Mildred S. Fenner, *editor.*

TELEVISION

(Continued)

drama (the numbers are evenly balanced in the daytime soap operas).

Women's role in television is defined almost exclusively in terms of their relationship to the male heroes and villains. This relationship is most often romantic and, therefore, most women are young and attractive—the spoils that go to the victor.

The patterns of violence and victimization in television drama must be seen in terms of the overall population of the television world. Nonwhites make up one-fourth of the population of television drama but are more likely to be involved in violence than are whites.

When we compared men and women characters who were involved in violence, we found the women far more likely to be victims than perpetrators of violence.

After comparing the facts of life on television with those available for parallel aspects of the "real world," Dr. Gerbner and I are trying to ascertain what respondents (adults and children, viewers and nonviewers) think is the true state of affairs (and, often, how they think these are depicted on television). By matching the judgments of our respondents with the data derived from our analysis of television drama and from real-life sources, we can build a composite picture of the relationships between these three images of the world.

In many cases, it should be possible to trace a line extending between the image of the world via TV and that image which presumably reflects the true world of fact, and then place our respondents at various points along the dimension. In such cases, we may be able to see how close our viewers come to seeing the world as would our hypothetical hermit.

Instead of the projective tests commonly used by clinical psychologists, we are using a semiprojective procedure as the central methodological tool to examine the images of reality which may be cultivated by television drama.

The first semiprojective material we have assembled consists of a large set of passport-type photographs of a heterogeneous group of people. These have been reliably coded in terms of sex, age, and race and can be put together in various ways. We have used somewhat different sets for different purposes and are currently testing a group of 40 pictures divided into equal subgroups of black and white, male and female, young (18-30) and old (35-60). In addition, we can utilize groups which represent other population segments, for example, the elderly or Asians. Most of our data were gathered from children—most of whom were white.

As mentioned earlier, in the world of television, the "victimization" ratios demonstrate the power of the white and the male over the nonwhite and the female.[1] When we asked children to make judgments about our picture-set people, we found very similar patterns. Employing one method, we asked children to rate each picture in a group of white individuals in terms of the

(Continued on page 90)

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likelihood that the person might murder someone or be murdered.

Another group of children was asked to pick, out of a biracial set, all of those who might be murderers and all who might be the victims of murder (these are not mutually exclusive). They were also asked to make the same choices in terms of TV.

Looking at the ratios of murderers to victims by race, sex, and age, one finds a pattern which is familiar to television viewers. White males are judged to be equally murderous and victimized, black males are mainly murderous, and black and white females are victimized. The killers are the young males. The victims are young females and old males. Children see this pattern as essentially the same in terms of life and television.

The picture sets have also been used to explore the casting of characters for more mundane roles. We have asked children to pick out of our sets those persons who might be found in a variety of occupational roles.

The patterns here are mostly quite consistent with the world of television. Doctors are men, and nurses are women. As one eight-year-old put it, "Anyone can be a doctor, as long as he's a man." Doctors are also relatively mature; nurses, especially in the opinion of heavy viewers, are young (as is the case on television but not in real life).

When we asked children to assign professions to our picture-people, we find that scientists are primarily white males, police are white and nonwhite males, teachers are about evenly divided between white and nonwhite and for heavy viewers (but not in reality), more likely to be male.

We are also working with a survey questionnaire in which we ask adults to answer over 40 "factual" questions. The questions are constructed so as to offer the respondent a choice

between two or more answers, all of which, in fact, are incorrect.

The incorrect answers are chosen so as to reflect either the bias that is characteristic of television drama or to represent a bias in a direction opposite to that which would be found on television. In other words, these questions require the respondent to choose answers which may reflect either a "television" or a "nontelevision" (which often means "real world") bias.

For example, respondents were asked to guess their own chances of encountering violence in any one week. The answers provided were typical either of television patterns (50:50, 10:1) or of the real world (100:1).

The questionnaire was administered to a probability sample in four metropolitan areas that had been prescreened to include equal numbers of "heavy" TV viewers (4 hours or more per day) and "light" viewers (less than 2 hours), matched on the basis of sex and education. The survey was conducted in April 1973, and although we have only partially analyzed the results at this point, some rather striking patterns are emerging.

Heavy television viewers are consistently, often to a statistically significant degree, more likely to choose the television-biased answer than are light viewers.

Heavy viewers, for example, are much more likely than light viewers to overestimate the U.S. proportion of the world population, to overestimate the percentages of those employed as professionals, as athletes and entertainers, and of males employed in law enforcement. They are also more likely to overestimate the rate of violent crime and their own chances of being the victim of violence.

We have been interested to note that television news programs cultivate assumptions about reality and encourage the development of values in viewers in much the same pattern

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as the drama shows do. This is particularly striking in view of our finding that heavy readers of newspapers and news magazines show an opposite tendency: They are less likely to pick the television-biased answers.

We feel this is an important finding which may help identify the cultivating powers of the various media and allow us to assess the effects of television in the overall context of media exposure.

Somewhat more surprising is the fact that education does not seem to predict cultivation patterns in a completely consistent manner. As we had supposed, respondents with a college education are less likely to choose the television-biased answers but, in some cases, they seem just as likely to do so as those with only high school or grade school education.

It is reasonable to ask whether the picture of the world as seen on television is, in fact, very distorted. It would be hard to argue that women and blacks are not relatively subservient to a power structure dominated by white males. The realities of that power may be more complex in real life, but the lesson is not false in essence.

Why then, some might argue, should our children not learn the truth about the world they are going to live in? Our answer is that the manner in which television cultivates the images and expectations of such a reality may well strengthen the hold of the powers it portrays.

The audience for which the message of television is intended is the great (sometimes silent) majority of white, middle-class, patriotic citizens who believe that America is a democracy (the leaders act in accordance with the desires of the people), that our economy is based on a free market (which is governed by the laws of supply and demand and free competition), and (most likely) that God is alive, white, and male. The middle class is the message.

Many people may disapprove of the fact that television clearly reflects the concentration of power and success in the hands of the white, male, middle-class majority, but few seem concerned with the fact that television ignores what many believe is an overwhelming concentration of economic and political power in the hands of a very small white, male elite, whose power may well be increasing as a result of the rapid acceleration of national and cross-national conglomeration.

The silent majority may believe that it is the ultimate source of power in our great democracy, and television drama confirms this belief. It seems reasonable to assume that what people see in the world of television does conform in large part to their image of reality, if it does not, indeed, determine that image.

Dr. Gerbner and I are less concerned with proving a cause-and-effect relationship between the two images of reality than in estimating the degree of similarity and the areas of disparity. To the degree that television reflects the beliefs and values of the majority culture, that similarity should exist regardless of specific viewing habits or patterns.

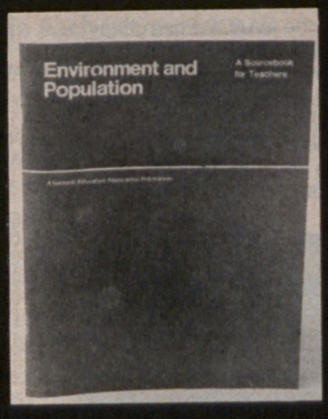
The pessimistic tone of our analysis may lead the reader to wonder why we should seek to gather more proofs of an altogether too tangible and distasteful pudding. The answer, once again, lies in the peculiar nature of the conventions of dramatic fiction. The power of the hidden message of the television world may well derive precisely from its invisibility. What is not seen, or, if seen, is taken as natural and real, cannot be questioned. Only by spelling out the latent message can one evaluate and then, perhaps, reject it.

Research on the nature of resistance to persuasion has shown that many of the beliefs that people are least likely to question are relatively vulnerable to counterpersuasion precisely because people have never questioned them and, therefore, have never seriously thought about why they have them, or whether, in fact, the beliefs hold up under scrutiny.[2] There is no need to assume that the implicit and powerful lessons of our cultural false consciousness are unchangeable. It is certainly clear, however, that they must be made explicit before they can be challenged and possibly changed. □

References

[1]G. Gerbner, "Communication and Social Environment," *Scientific American*, (September 1972), pp. 152-160.

[2]W. J. McGuire, "Inducing Resistance to Persuasion," in L. Berkowitz, ed., *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology* (New York, Academic Press, 1964) Vol. 1, pp. 191-229.



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Sound Reasoning

By STEVE BRODY
English Teacher, Eastchester (New York) Senior High School.

A metropolitan teachers college is toying with the idea of conducting methods courses on the subway during rush hour, to afford prospective teachers the proper atmosphere for developing the larynx power necessary to overcome the sound and fury of the classroom.

I have been in the racket many years, but there are moments when my classroom sounds like a gathering of 747's.

In self-defense, I have built a protective shell against raw vocal noises. But the more specialized sounds—often rendered inadvertently—threaten to drive me into early retirement. Take the *Pen Clicker,* for instance, who performs his sadistic machinations with no malice aforethought, but whose assaults upon my composure are practically indefensible.

I once had a compulsive pen clicker named Larry Green in my class. His pens must have been souped up with liquid hydrogen, though the noise bothered me less than the consistency. He clicked his pen every seven seconds, with maddening exactitude. Instead of the drip-drip of water to induce hysteria, there was the steady click of his pen. Every seven seconds.

One day, about half way through "The Prisoner of Chillon," I suddenly became aware that the clicking had stopped. I stared at Larry a full seven seconds, but there was no click. Faking some business in my desk, I opened the drawer, carefully counting to seven, but still no click. The rest of the period I kept counting for the click that never came. At the bell, I summoned Larry to my desk.

"What happened?" I asked.

Larry screwed up his face. "What happened with what?"

"Your pen, Larry, your pen."

"The spring broke, I guess." He shot me a queer look. "How did you know?"

"Divine revelation," I replied.

A prime destroyer of classroom tranquility is the *Book Slammer.* He signals the end of the session by closing his anthology with resounding finality. I once had a chap named Charlie Francis, who slammed books so hard that he threatened to knock the pages out of sequence. One day, in his anxiety to terminate the lesson, he slammed the book closed before removing his thumb and was lost to the baseball team all season.

Noise generated by slamming books is a fairly accurate barometer of literary interest. The duller the material, the more vigorous the slamming. After reading Scott's *Lady of the Lake* recently, the slammers responded with the equivalent of a 21-gun salute.

The closely related *Book Dropper* enters the room inconspicuously between periods when the atmosphere is relatively calm. He announces his presence by dropping the anthology onto the desk, setting off a chain book-dropping reaction that sounds like cherry bombs detonating in a phone booth.

Book droppers vie ingeniously for supremacy. One lad would stand on a chair, hold the book high over his head, then let go. Bob Pitman and Jan Berger worked in tandem. Until I broke up the act by official ukase, Bob would climb atop Jan's shoulders and let the anthology fly. English literature from Beowulf to Hardy striking hard maple from that height produced a sound that exceeded all others.

The undisputed prince (or princess) of pandemonium is the *Gum Cracker.* Bubble gum aficionados have developed their own thunderous noise which, when accompanied by the rapid bursts of conventional chewers, produces stunning blends of audio-mayhem.

Gum cracking erupts spontaneously. A provocative piece of literature may trigger into action gum which has lain dormant. One of my classes, reading *All Quiet on the Western Front,* became so absorbed in a scene depicting a British artillery barrage against a German rifle company that the bubble-gum and the conventional chewers rattled the room with gum-fire for several minutes. I had to pass the wastebasket and insist that all mouths be purged.

Stalking the gum chewer can be an exercise in futility. The wad may be surreptitiously removed or stashed away in a handy dental cavity. Some swallow the evidence. Cory Palmer would gulp, then open her mouth for inspection.

Once I had a terrible dream that Cory was chewing a full carton of gum. Her cheeks were distended, her eyes bulging. When I challenged her, she gave a mighty gulp, and a strangled swallow. Then when I asked her a question a short time later, she coughed loudly, and an enormous chewing-gum bubble emerged from her mouth that threatened to engulf the entire room. I woke up relieved to find that this episode had been a dream, even if it meant facing another tumultuous day at school. □

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WHO'S WHO IN HISTORY

☐ Junior high school students have a way of recreating bygone days—and the people who lived in those times—to suit themselves. Here is a brief Who's Who in history, a round-up of those who, according to eighth grade test papers, have contributed most to the progress of man:

Audubon, John James—A bird brain.

Balboa, Vasco Nunez de—Explored the southern coast of France and sailed across what is now Chicago.

Caruso, Enrico—The first radio disjocky.

Custer, General—Made a last stand, and it was the last time he ever stood.

Edison, Thomas—Wrote the decoration of Independence.

Foster, Stephen—Wrote the "Star Spanglered Banner," our national annual.

Hari, Mati—A strip T dancer who was a spy and was executed by the Frances.

Henry, Patrick—Said, "I know not what subject others may take, but as for me give me liberty or give me death!"

Jay, John—First chief justice of the peace.

Jones, John Paul—A Scoot who came over with Bonhomme Richard.

Kahn, Great—King of China. A very rich and wealthy king. He did not know this.

Moses—Saved the people from bond issues.

Nightgal, Florence—Found the Red Cross.

Paine, Thomas—Said, "Now is the time to try men's souls."

Riley, Sir Walter—A english settler that settled the Atlantic Ocean.

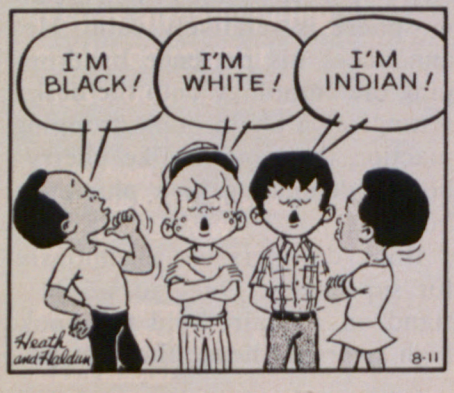
Reverse, Paula—Made a midnight ride, but was thrown from his horse and had to walk back to Mexico.

Rossevelt, Franklin—Died suddenly of cerebral hemmeroids.

Taylor, Zachary—A general in the Mexican War who fought bravely at San Roy and Corpus Crispy.

—Bill Lawrence, history teacher, Dial Junior High School, Pine Bluff, Arkansas.

WINNER WILLIAMS



Hall Duncan, the creator of this comic strip, which has appeared regularly in the *Oklahoma City Times,* is an assistant professor of advertising design at Central State University in Edmond, Oklahoma. The protagonist of the strip is Winner Williams, a young black boy who represents the struggles of children learning to live in a racially tense world. Don Heath, a black Oklahoma City artist, works with Dr. Duncan as assistant and idea collaborator. Dr. Duncan and Mr. Heath received the Whitney M. Young, Jr., Memorial Award at the NEA Human Rights Awards Dinner at the NEA Convention in Portland, Oregon, last summer.

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DEVELOPMENTS

Public Confidence and Teachers

Some 66 percent of the public rate the "ethical and moral practices" of elementary and secondary teachers as "excellent" to "good," according to a recent poll conducted by Opinion Research Corporation for NEA. Fifty-five percent expressed the same feelings about college professors.

Only physicians, scientists, and small business proprietors (in that order) received higher ratings than schoolteachers in this poll of the public's appraisal of leadership groups. The two lowest ratings went to federal government officials and labor union leaders.

High Schoolers and Watergate

Seven in 10 high school student leaders believe matters relating to the Watergate incident and the subsequent investigation have caused a loss of public confidence in the President and revealed a weakness in our political structure. This finding resulted from a survey of 17- and 18-year-old high achievers conducted by Who's Who Among American High School Students in the summer of 1973. Results of the survey were released recently.

Reaction was mixed about Watergate's effect on President Nixon's term of office: 45 percent think he should be subpoenaed to testify in court, 40 percent said he should continue in office unimpeded, and 4 percent called for his impeachment.

Percentage of High School Graduates Going to College Decreases

Of the 3 million students who graduated from high school in 1972, 49 percent went on to college, according to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS). This is the lowest proportion in five years.

However, the Bureau noted, the actual number going on to college—about 1.5 million—changed little from 1968 to 1972. Population increases compensated for the drop in the enrollment rate.

"The decrease in college enrollment has been entirely among white graduates, whose rate fell from 57 percent in 1968 to 49 percent in October 1972, a level about equal to that of 10 years earlier," says BLS. The proportion of 1972 black graduates who went on to college (48 percent) was about the same as in 1968 but higher than 10 years earlier (34 percent).

Artists in the Schools

For the sixth consecutive year, 1974-75, professional artists will appear in elementary and secondary classrooms throughout the country for varying periods of time, under the Artists-in-Schools Program. The National Endowment for the Arts and the U.S. Office of Education fund the Program.

In 1969-70, the first year of the project, $100,000 in grants placed six visual artists in secondary schools in six states. This school year, approximately $3 million in grants was awarded, and the Program is operating in all 50 states and five special jurisdictions. The 1974-75 Program is expected to top $3 million.

Hiring Minority Educators

About 211,000 more minority educators must be hired for the nation's public schools to achieve "equity and parity" for minorities, said Samuel B. Ethridge of the NEA staff in an address to the 58th annual convention of the Association for the Study of Afro-American History. Mr. Ethridge pointed out that "black teachers generally fared much worse proportionately in the East, North, and West than in the South" in respect to employment. The reason for the more favorable conditions in the South is that NEA, the NAACP Legal Defense Fund, Inc., and the U.S. Department of Justice have filed suits on behalf of black educators in Southern states, he asserted.

Although the Spanish-speaking minority is the worst hit from a percentage standpoint, the NEA spokesman said that Blacks still represent the greater numerical minority-educator problem, since "Afro-Americans are the largest identifiable minority in the nation."

Business and the Metric System

U.S. commerce and industry are willing and able to begin an effective conversion program to the metric system on short notice, according to a nationwide survey of approximately 5,500 business firms and other organizations by the American Management Associations. Some of the report's findings are:

- More than three-quarters of the respondents favor a national conversion.
- More than 80 percent estimate that a 10-year transition period would be ample.
- Those respondents who are already conversant with the system tend to believe that conversion problems will be minimal.

The NEA Representative Assembly has passed a continuing resolution stating that "a carefully planned effort to convert to the metric system is essential to the future of American industrial and technological development and to the evolution of effective world communication."

Students and Graduate School

About 50 percent of college seniors planning on graduate or professional school claimed that persuasion from parents, friends, and relatives was a major factor in their decision to continue their education, reports Educational Testing Service in a study titled *The Graduates.*

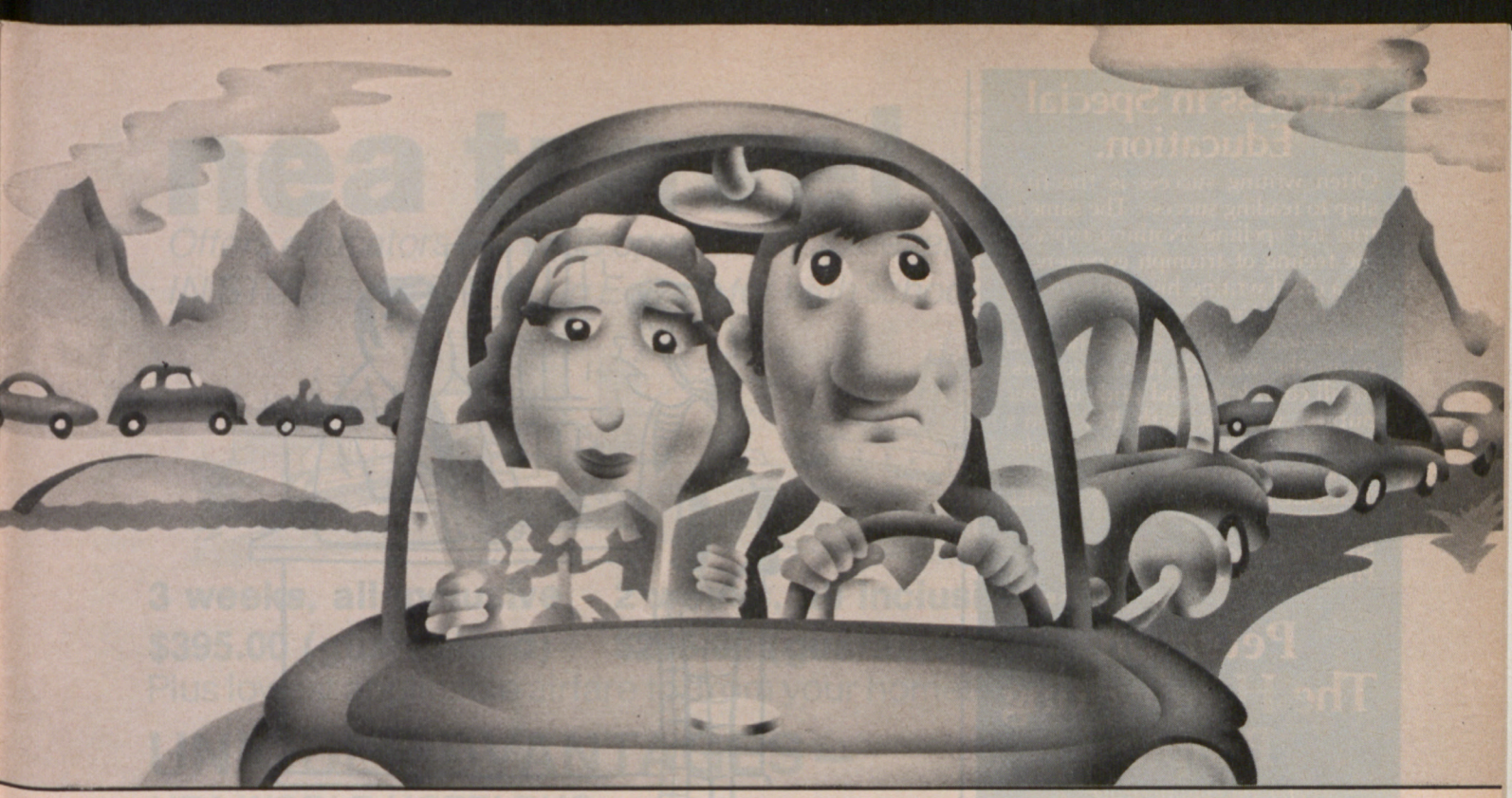
Only 1 in 4 in this group said a college guidance counselor played a decisive role. Only 1 in 10 said that talks with a recruiter from a graduate school were strongly influential.

ETS surveyed almost 21,000 students who were seniors in 94 colleges in 1971 to find out about their career plans, values, and ideals.

NIMH Gives Grant to Chicano Center

The National Institute of Mental Health has funded a program for Spanish-speaking scholars to identify and conduct research on the mental health needs of Spanish-speaking people. The Chicano Studies Center

(Continued on page 100)



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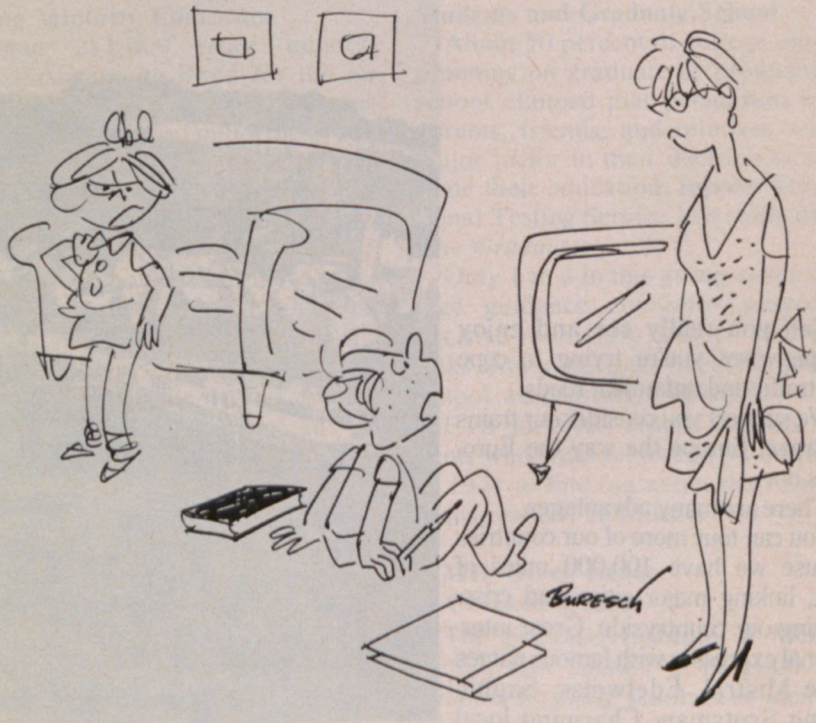

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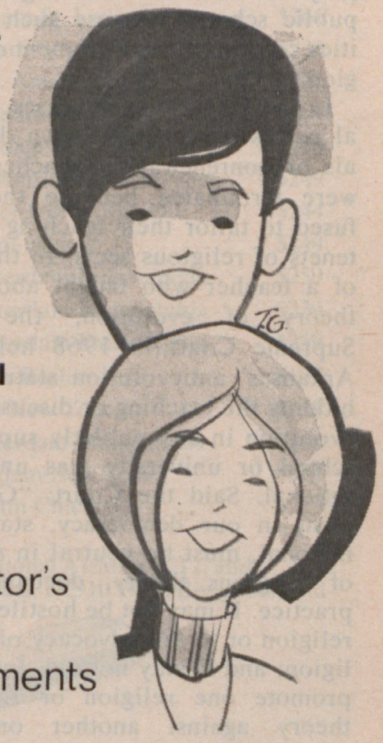

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THE LAW AND TEACHER RIGHTS

☐ **Last June, the U.S. Supreme** Court struck down both income tax credits and tuition reimbursement plans benefiting parents of children attending parochial schools and private schools because such schemes aid the establishment of religion in violation of the First Amendment.

Said the Court: "Special tax benefits cannot be squared with the principle of neutrality" of government toward religion. The Court has also declared unconstitutional prayers and Bible reading in the public schools because such activities constitute establishment of religion.

In individual teacher cases, federal courts have struck down dismissals or nonrenewals of teachers who were terminated because they refused to tailor their teaching to the tenets of religious sects. In the case of a teacher who taught about the theory of evolution, the U.S. Supreme Court in 1968 held that Arkansas' antievolution statute forbidding the teaching or discussion of evolution in any publicly supported school or university was unconstitutional. Said the Court: "Government in our democracy, state and national, must be neutral in matters of religious theory, doctrine, and practice. It may not be hostile to any religion or to the advocacy of no religion; and it may not aid, foster, or promote one religion or religious theory against another or even against the militant opposite."

In a more recent case, a North Carolina student teacher was discharged because of his replies to seventh graders' queries during a history lesson on the Middle East and religion. He stated that Darwin's theories of the origin and evolution of the species are valid; that Adam and Eve were symbolically the first people; that some of the Bible was not to be taken literally; and that he did not attend church, believe in heaven or hell, life after death, or know what a soul was. The district court declared: "In view of the bloody tyranny and ignorance which had so frequently followed the vision of cross and crown, the Founding Fathers were obviously interested in freedom *from* religion of state origin or sanction, as much as in freedom *of* religion of their own choice."

The court further noted, "To discharge a teacher without a warning because his answers to scientific and theological questions do not fit the notions of the local parents and teachers is a violation of the Establishment clause of the First Amendment. . . . To forbid discussion of scientific subjects like Darwin's theory of evolution on "religious" grounds is simply to postpone the education of those children until after they get out of school. If a teacher has to answer searching, honest questions only in terms of the lowest common denominator of the professed beliefs of those parents who complain the loudest, this means that the state through the public schools is impressing the particular religious orthodoxy of those parents upon the religious and scientific education of the children by force of law. The prohibition against the establishment of religion must not be thus distorted and thwarted."

A South Carolina science teacher was fired after expressing her personal ideas about religion while teaching ninth graders on the origins of the earth. In response to students' questions, she said she viewed Christ as a mortal, did not believe in heaven and hell, and viewed the Bible as a "great history book."

Her DuShane Fund-supported suit alleged that the school district and administrators were involved in religious discrimination because of their unconstitutional financial support of sectarian religious instruction in the schools. Prior to trial, she settled her suit. Her record was cleared and she received back pay.

Similarly, teachers, as employees of state agencies may not be required to affirm or deny religious beliefs as a condition of employment.

—The DuShane Emergency Fund, NEA Teacher Rights, is preparing this series.

DEVELOPMENTS

(Continued)

of the University of California at Los Angeles received the grant of $173,362 to support the first year of a four-year program involving social scientists from six different disciplines.

Visiting Chicano, Puerto Rican, and other Latin scholars will work with selected graduate students to identify and research critical issues confronting this minority. Among the areas to be studied are racial and ethnic intergroup relations and the effects of psychological stress on the well-being of the individual.

Effects of Standardized Tests

In an attempt to discover the effects of standardized testing on students, parents, and teachers, HEW's National Institute of Education has awarded $330,000 for a study involving a testing program in Ireland—one of the few English-speaking countries where such tests have never been used. The three-year grant will provide partial support for a project that will introduce standardized testing into selected Irish schools and study the tests' effects on educational expectations, perceptions, and decisions of various students, teachers, and parents.

The project will be jointly undertaken by Boston College and St. Patrick's College in Dublin, with the cooperation of the Irish Department of Education.

Grading Practices Change Little

High school students are graded pretty much as their parents were graded—with A, B, C, and an occasional F—despite the introduction of pass/fail and other experimental grading practices tried in recent years.

A survey of more than 1,000 high schools by Educational Testing Service shows only 2 percent of the surveyed schools use grading systems such as pass/fail. The great majority, about 68 percent, still use letter grades, while 16 percent use only percentages and another 2 percent, other numerical scales.

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CW-17	July 31	Aug. 22	Minneapolis-Amsterdam-Minneapolis	$242
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CW-19	Aug. 6	Aug. 30	Chicago-Amsterdam-Chicago	$229

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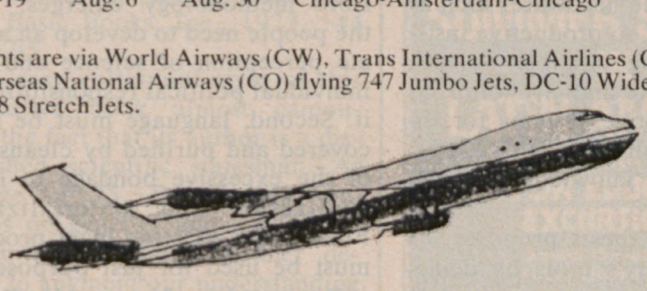

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BOOKS

Ivan Illich, *Tools for Conviviality.* New York, Harper and Row, 1973. 110 pp. $5.95.

Ivan Illich has hit a responsive chord with many North American educators because of the challenges he hurls at the traditional assumptions which undergird our education and culture. In his most recent offering, *Tools for Conviviality,* Illich once more critically reviews the current status of humankind and concurs in general outline with those environmentalists and futurists who view dimly the prospects for survival unless some radical action is taken.

This extended essay is a progress report of Illich's attempt "to define conceptually alternative modes" for a postindustrial age. His prophetic voice calls for the development of convivial societies *"in which modern technologies serve politically interrelated individuals rather than* [industrial] *managers. . . .* Conviviality is a process of autonomous and creative intercourse among persons, and the intercourse of persons with their environments."

"Tools" takes on an expanded meaning in this discourse. They range from simple hardware, such as pots and brooms, to productive institutions producing tangible objects, such as toothpaste and city water, as well as "productive systems for intangible commodities, such as 'education,' 'health,' 'knowledge,' or 'decisions.'"

Basically, his thesis proposes the control of society's tools by democratic political processes rather than by technological experts. Autocratic social forms, whether capitalistic or communistic, have demonstrably proven their inability to solve the problems they have produced in the industrial age. Indeed, attempts to solve problems by application of nonconvivial tools and methodologies result in problems of greater complexity and danger to mankind.

The purpose of this book is to "provide guidelines for action" that will identify and help overcome the "manipulation of people for the sake of their tools." The means have become the ends to such an extent that education as a commodity and the school as an institution "make each other necessary." The nonconvivial use of tools has resulted in a similar confusion of means with ends in all aspects of our society.

The answer to the perplexing dilemma, according to Illich, lies in seeking a balance between industrial development and convivial human intercourse. However, the balancing act is complicated by the complex nature of the threat. It is insufficient to guard against biological degradation alone. Equally dangerous is the tendency for institutions to insist on trying to solve the problems they help to create.

After sharply, creatively, and convincingly analyzing the nature of the malady created by industrial tools, his prescription seems too weak to hope to cure the disease. While his subject may be "tools," the *intentional* use of tools for "correct" relationships between means and ends is his cure.

Certainly this is not a revolutionary strategy. However, when the rhetoric is cleared away, a very sensible methodology emerges. First, the people need to develop an accurate perception of science and their individual political responsibility for it. Second, language must be rediscovered and purified by cleansing it of the excessive bondage to industrialization and materialization. Finally, the existing legal processes must be used for just purposes.

Reviewed by **Norman V. Overly,** professor of education, Indiana University, Bloomington.

John I. Goodlad and Harold G. Shane, editors, *The Elementary School in the United States,* The Seventy-second Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II. Chicago, The University of Chicago Press (distributors), 1973. 418 pp. $7.

This is a serious book for serious educators. It will be referred to and footnoted in the support of the presentation of ideas that are put forth in the never-ending desire to make the elementary school the locus of all the best that this nation has to offer children of that school age.

John Goodlad sets the tone of the volume well. In his chapter entitled "The Elementary School as a Social Institution," he gives a clear overview of what is to follow. Henry J. Otto follows this with a short but concise chapter on "The Historical Roots of Contemporary Elementary Education."

Sol Cohen deals with the elementary school in a social context. For this reviewer, his chapter holds a far more trenchant analysis than the historical one that precedes it.

Cohen speculates that perhaps the growth of the cities affected "the life of a child more than any other factor." Out of the growth of the cities came the revolutionary concept, "the elementary school as an industrial training agency . . . the elementary school as a community center . . . the elementary school as a child welfare agency . . . and the elementary school [being] responsible for the whole child."

The next chapter by Alice Miel deals with some of the issues and options open to us. She observes that "those now responsible for the elementary school, if they are not to preside over an increasingly obsolete institution, have no choice but to participate in fashioning educational arrangements responsive to this generation of children. Increasingly, viable alternatives for improving the schools are emerging."

She then goes on to describe those emerging opportunities with an in-depth analysis, full of ideas and provisions that beg for close reading.

The next section of the volume deals with the forces and ideas that are shaping the elementary school. Four chapters cover, respectively, the philosophical context, the views of the child, the sources of school practice, and the economic context. "The Philosophical Context," elaborated on by Phillip Smith, is one of the most insightful distillations one could ever hope for in a

volume such as this.

Smith's chapter dovetails neatly with the chapter that follows in which Dorris Lee discusses the various views of the child. By contrasting several of the great thinkers and analyzing aspects of school practices based on their thinking, she elaborates on how these beliefs have affected education.

Arthur W. Foshay in his "Sources of School Practice," the chapter that follows, does much the same thing from a different point of view. The beliefs and customs influencing the school in terms of tradition, ritual, beliefs about the child and how he learns, theories of learning and typical school practices and their sources, serve as the bases for his analysis.

Closing out this section is a chapter by Charles S. Benson on "The Economic Context." After a fairly precise analysis of the relationship between education and economic growth and of the economic function of education as a sorting device, he moves on to discuss the possible mechanisms of finance of elementary education based on recent court rulings. He develops, in the last part of his chapter, some suggested ways for financing schools with an analysis of the possibilities and the problems inherent therein.

The next section consists of four chapters that deal with the areas of organization and staffing, curriculum, teaching, and the school as a socializing agency. Robert Anderson leads off with an analysis of the history and present situation relative to school organization. He summarizes current innovative practices in education and discusses the problems inherent in trying to assess the quality of these kinds of activities.

Following this analysis, Wilma S. Longstreet defines and analyzes the basic curriculum designs—subject-oriented, interdisciplinary, child-oriented, and socially oriented.

Greta Morine and Harold Morine offer what I believe to be one of the best chapters extant dealing with the analysis of teaching. They also offer workable suggestions for improvement in elementary school teaching. Louis M. Smith and Sally Schmacher discuss the school as a socializer in an excellent chapter that follows.

The final section of the book deals with the urban elementary school today, with how to make changes in the elementary schools, and with the prospects and prerequisites for the improvement of elementary education.

Finally, this book concludes with a chapter by Harold G. Shane, co-editor of the book. His is a clarion call for new goals in the culture and in the schools. He offers a model for educational progress that involves educating children, starting at about age two and continuing through the post-secondary years. His is a well-designed model built on the concept that "the past no longer charts the future."

Reviewed by **Maurie Hillson,** professor of education, Graduate School of Education, Rutgers University, New Brunswick, New Jersey.

Theodosius Dobzhansky, *Genetic Diversity and Human Equality.* New York, Basic Books, Inc., 1973. 144 pp. $5.95.

The easy colloquial style of this provocative book almost camouflages the fact that its author is a distinguished scientific statesman. At the age of 73, Dobzhansky discourses on genetics and human beings in a penetrating manner designed to augment our understanding of the science of genetics and its application to human variation—particularly in regard to mental skills.

An appendix of approximately one hundred references provides additional substance to the description of genetic principles and their application to our understanding of genetic diversity and environment.

Dobzhansky picks up John Dewey's statement that we should examine the aims and ideals that should control our educational policies and undertakings. He asserts that similar moral standards apply to

(Continued on page 104)

All that is necessary for the forces of evil to win the world is for enough good men to do nothing.

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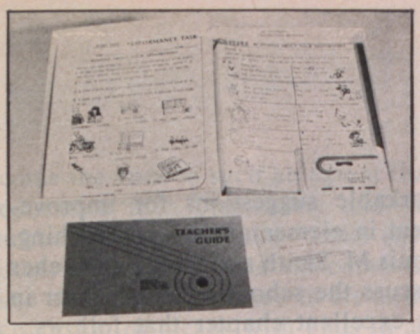

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BOOKS

(Continued)

evolutionary biology. Whether research is done on mice, flies, or bacteria, the aim of science must be to contribute to the understanding of man and his place in the universe.

Dobzhansky uses the phrase *genetic conditioning* to indicate the interplay between heredity and environment that produces unique individuals.

Dobzhansky's open approach to the controversies and fears that genetic variations in social classes and races may justify race and class prejudice is a breath of fresh air. Even the concepts of meritocracy are placed in perspective. Other topics presented include an evaluation of genetic change, gradients, and the spurious changes engendered by drift or random variation in frequencies of various genetic components within races.

In the final chapter, the problems of extraterrestrial life, our sociologic image and relationship to evolution, and the generally creative process of evolution are discussed.

He completes his discussion by indicating that humans have evolved in a unique way in ability to cope with the environment, through our culture. It is then the future interaction of evolution as encompassed in genetic diversity and man's society that will allow us to play our variable role in biological and societal evolution.

Reviewed by **A. Donald Merritt, M.D.,** professor, medical genetics, Indiana University School of Medicine, Indianapolis.

Paulo Freire, *Education for Critical Consciousness.* New York, The Seabury Press, 1973. 164 pp. $5.95.

This book contains two essays on education by Paulo Freire written prior to his more comprehensive educational statement in *Pedagogy of the Oppressed.* In each essay Freire explores the critical elements of a truly humanistic education.

His is a richer theoretical formulation than the usual exhortative dicta found in most popular Ameri-

(Continued on page 106)

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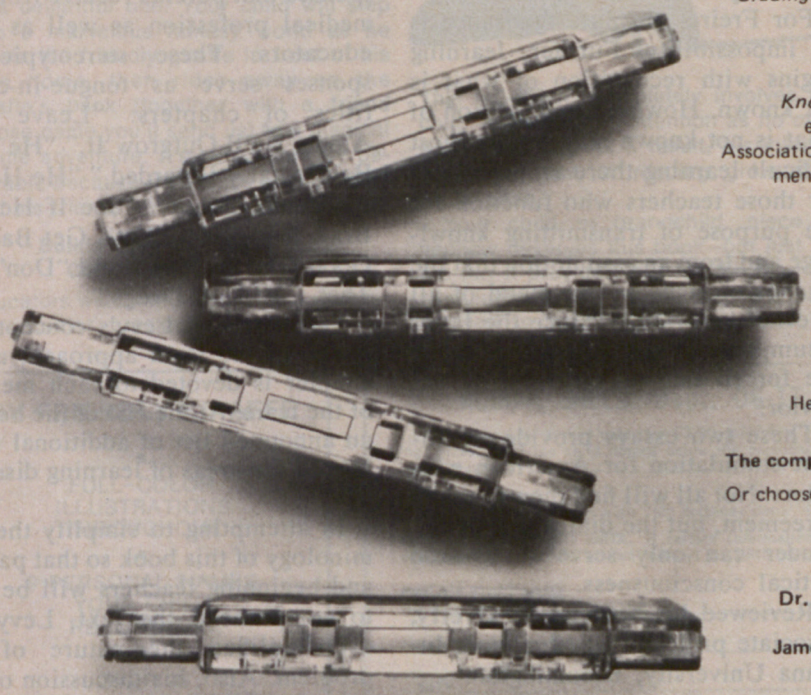

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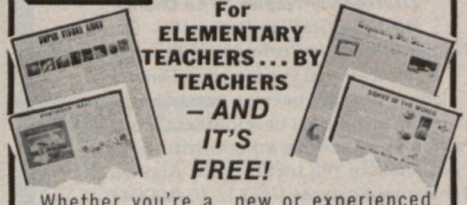

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BOOKS

(Continued)

can educational literature. However, his writing style does not assist the reader: He tends to overintellectualize and verbalize about his points and to obfuscate his meaning.

The ideas in the book require thought and should stimulate new insights into the purposes of education. Freire's search is for the purity of purpose and intent necessary for the meaningful education of the complete man. As Freire notes, his methodology is not unique, for the ideas of Dewey, Socrates, and many others are incorporated in his formulations.

Fundamental to the view he expresses of the need for a humane orientation in the education process is a faith in people and respect for the nature of knowledge as "being in relationship with the world."

For Freire, absolute ignorance is an impossibility. Further, learning begins with recognition of what is not known. However, recognition of what is not known may be the most difficult learning there is, especially for those teachers who function for the purpose of transmitting knowledge and from an assumption that the teacher must be in command of all relevant knowledge. Since the latter assumption is not realizable, many are forced into propagandizing behavior.

These two essays provide significant stimulation for American educators. Not all will find themselves in agreement, but the dialogue they engender can only serve to awaken critical consciousness.

Reviewed by **Norman V. Overly,** associate professor of education, Indiana University, Bloomington.

Howard B. Levy, M.D., *Square Pegs-Round Holes: The Learning Disabled Child in the Classroom and at Home.* Boston, Little, Brown and Co., 1973. 250 pp. $7.50.

In the prologue to his book, Levy states that many books on the topic of learning disabilities are written by authorities in various fields, such as speech pathology, perception, and language. He purports that this multidisciplinary approach, in many cases, may not be totally effective because many parents and teachers are not able to obtain the services of all the disciplines.

His concern that the learning disabled child be kept in the "mainstream of regular education in his own community where he belongs" leads Levy to select team members whom he considers to be closest to the child. These are: the parent, the teacher, and the physician.

In Part One of the book, Levy defines the term *learning disability* and discusses the characteristics of the learning disabled child.

In Part Two, he presents some of the problems that parents encounter in attempting to obtain services for such a child. Levy utilizes typical responses that parents receive from the medical profession as well as from educators. These stereotypic responses serve as tongue-in-cheek titles of chapters: "Leave Him Alone, He'll Outgrow It," "He Must Be Mentally Retarded," "He Has an Emotional Block," "See If He Has Brain Damage," "Let's Get Back to Good Old Phonics," and "Don't Put That Child on Drugs."

Part Three is Levy's conceptualization of the team approach, and a chapter is devoted to each member of the team. At the end of the book is an annotated list of additional readings in the areas of learning disabilities.

In attempting to simplify the terminology of this book so that parents and beginning teachers will be able to comprehend the text, Levy has oversimplified the nature of the problem. Also, his discussion of the characteristics of a learning disabled child is generalized in many areas.

Although Dr. Levy continually states that he is not an educator, he devotes chapters to educational matters, such as the one titled "Why Steve Really Can't Read." A classroom teacher would not be able to derive much substance from Levy's discussion of reading problems. In addition, much of his explanation for

(Continued on page 108)

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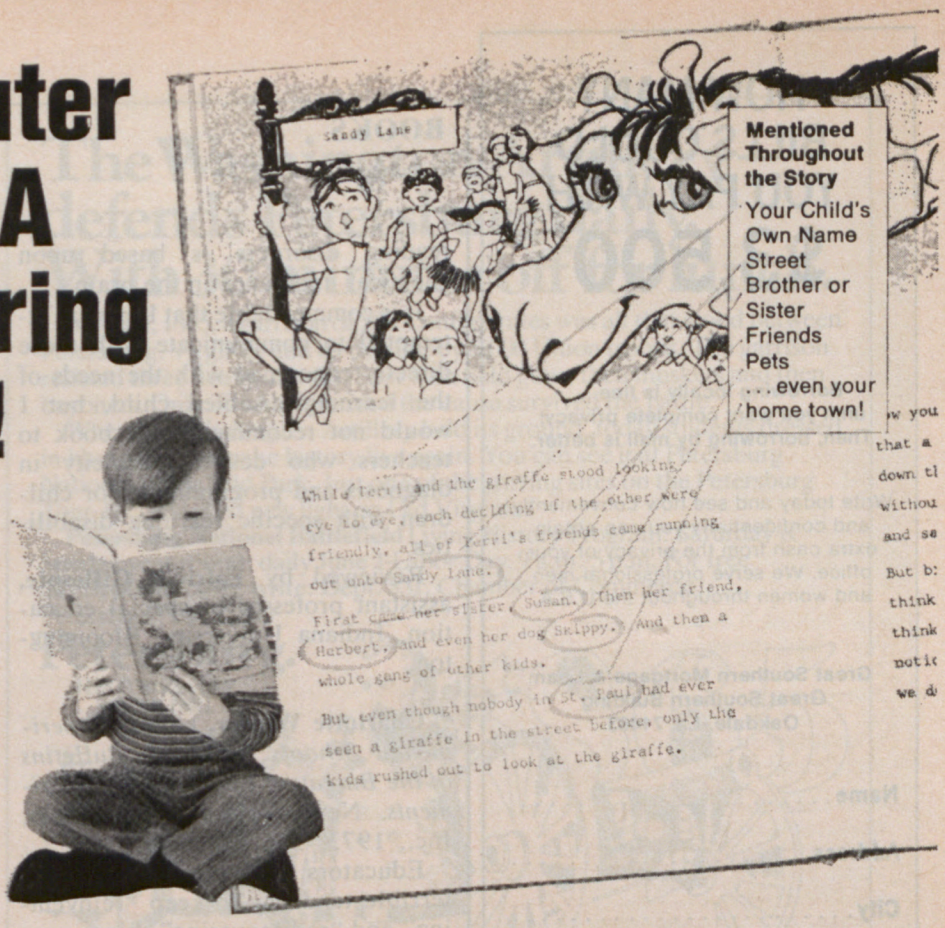
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CHILD'S ADDRESS _____ APT. ____

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CHILD'S BIRTH DATE: ___ / ___ / ___ (Month / Day / Year)

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BOOKS

(Continued)

reading disorders is based upon chemical imbalance in the brain.

It is commendable that Levy has attempted to communicate with those directly concerned with the needs of the learning disabled child, but I would not recommend this book to teachers who desire specificity in diagnosis and programming for children with specific learning disabilities.

Reviewed by **Patricia Gillespie,** assistant professor of special education, Indiana University, Bloomington.

Charlotte Winsor, editor, *Experimental Schools Revisited: Bulletins of the Bureau of Educational Experiments.* New York, Agathon Press, Inc., 1973. 335 pp. $7.95.

Educators have often exercised a terrible tendency to keep "reinventing" and "rediscovering" things over and over again. Often dressed up with a new jargon, previously forgotten experiences are hauled out as the latest fad and rushed into print and package by ever-ready educational entrepreneurs. Take, for example, the free school movement or the current rage for "open" schools. While many have heralded these schools as a new panacea for our educational problems, they are strikingly similar to progressive education schools of decades ago.

Unfortunately, educators and laymen are also inclined to enthusiastically endorse theoretical ideas that are difficult to put into action. Thus, we have many people calling for "open education" who have little idea of how to actually go about it.

Charlotte Winsor's book systematically records a variety of experiences in developing nonconventional schools—schools that were created during the early 1900's.

Experimental Schools Revisited contains a series of Bulletins of the Bureau of Educational Experiments, originally published between 1917 and 1924, that provide detailed descriptions of eight experimental infant schools, plus an assortment of curriculums, a catalogue of do-your-own-thing play equipment, and a variety of informative data on early child growth and development.

The Bureau of Educational Experiments, which later became the Bank Street College of Education, was founded in the early 1900's. The Bureau established a number of unconventional infant schools so that educational theory could be implemented and researchers could observe and record child behavior on a long-term basis.

Numerous present-day reformers will not like to discover how many of their "new" ideas were being tried and tested during the early 1900's. Nonetheless, the school description should provide provocative insights into developing unconventional programs and techniques. The concepts and issues that were being raised in the early 1900's are as new as the nearest Free School.

Reviewed by **Robert D. Barr,** codirector, National Consortium for Options in Public Education, Indiana University, Bloomington.

John I. Goodlad, M. Frances Klein, Jerrold G. Novotney, and Associates, *Early Schooling in the United States.* New York, McGraw Hill, 1973. 288 pp. $7.95.

This report of "a field study designed to provide a description of the day-to-day practices in typical nursery schools in major cities throughout the country" is the first in a new series of reports on early schooling sponsored by the Institute for Development of Educational Activities (/I/D/E/A/). John I. Goodlad, who heads /I/D/E/A/'s Research Division and who is the editor of the series, was principal investigator in the present study and is the principal author of the volume.

With the help of local coordinators, the study group conducted its survey in 201 nursery schools in nine geographically representative American cities. The staff developed and used two forms, one designed to gather basic information about each nursery school through an interview with its head or director, and the

other a classroom observation form dealing with school activities, materials, interactions, attitudes, and organization of individual classrooms. These forms are included in Appendix B and will probably be of much value to those interested in taking stock of what they or others are doing. Also of great potential value to the reader is the 33-page annotated bibliography.

The book is divided into three parts. Part One contains two chapters, which provide a background against which the status survey can be examined.

The three chapters of Part Two provide first an inventory by means of Census-type data about the 201 schools, then a section entitled "How Nursery Schools See Themselves," and finally a chapter portraying what trained observers saw "Behind School and Classroom Doors" in those schools. Most readers will probably appreciate the three-page section, "A Day in Nursery School," which summarizes the findings of the study and serves as a wrap-up for Part Two.

In Part Three, Goodlad presents conclusions and observations, along with some specific recommendations to legislators, parents, child-development specialists, researchers, and nursery school directors and teachers. Beginning with an appeal for adequately funded collection of data in the preschool field, he proceeds to suggestions for state legislation and support for the improved professionalization of the early education field, for improved research and program development with the help of several research-and-development centers in each state, and for the full-blown development of early childhood public schooling for children ranging in age from 4 to 7 or 8.

Reviewed by **Robert H. Anderson,** professor and dean of the College of Education, Texas Tech University, Lubbock; formerly professor of education, Harvard University.

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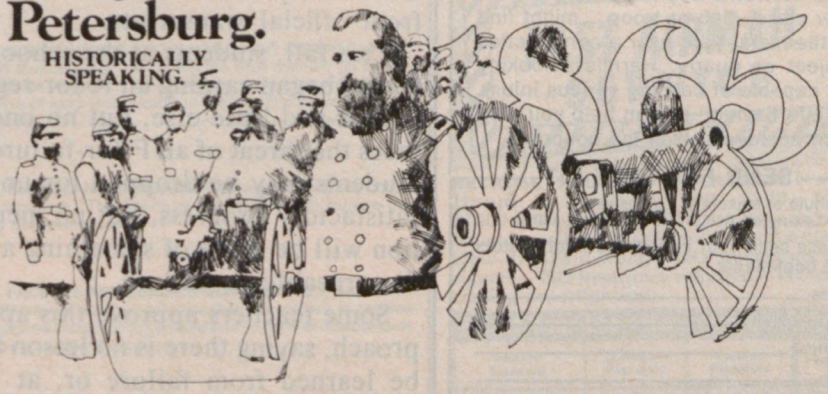

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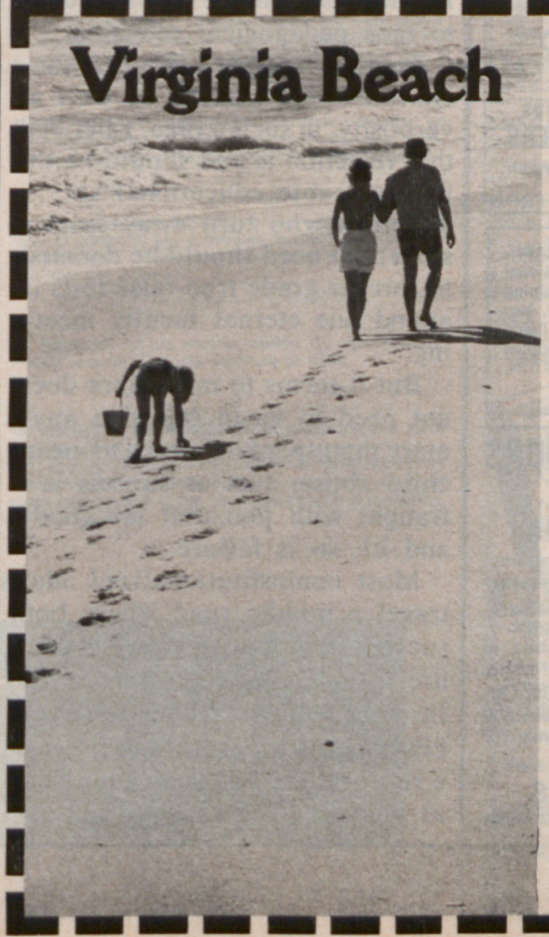

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COMMENT

By RICHARD P. BAILEY
President, Hamline University, St. Paul, Minnesota.

Want a perplexing educational question to ponder: Should you give a grade of F?

It is a question such as that which prolongs a faculty meeting well beyond the dinner hour. More and more often students demand abolishment of the unwanted grade and faculty decide to banish it from official transcripts.

Last fall, students at the school I head began earning an R-for-registered-and-little-else, but no one faces the threat of an F-for-failure. Students may be dropped for unsatisfactory progress, but no mention will be made of something as disagreeable as failure.

Some teachers approve this approach, saying there is no lesson to be learned from failure or, at least, that it is not a "positive learning experience" for a student to face pedagogical rejection.

There is twisted logic and saccharine-sweet charity, as well as verbosity, in such a plea. I believe that rejection is and should be the unforgiveable educational sin. Teachers who turn away from a student in need should be doomed to forever grade true-false tests or attend one eternal faculty meeting.

But it seems to me failure does not need to mean rejection any more than spanking needs to mean child abuse. Just as success is fraught with potential for good and ill, so is failure.

Most noninstitutionalized adults travel a middle road where both success and failure occur. If failure is not possible, where is the thrill of success? Education is exciting because, like life itself, it is a risk venture, but in an educational mishmash of accomplishment for everyone, isn't personal incentive lost? The thrill of success is a reward given for overcoming failure, and doesn't taking away the penalty clause void the learning contract?

Any good teacher understands levels of learning and will use them so that a child has a fair chance to succeed if he tries. No decent human being advocates frustration, disapproval, or shame as valid teaching techniques. The reality of failure is something else.

I can identify, almost to the moment after 33 years, the point in my life at which I decided to mean something. It followed failure.

After a self-admitted "brilliant" high school career, I dropped, at age 16, onto a college campus. There I awaited the recognition which Mom, Dad, Aunt Martha, and I assumed was my due. It never came. I failed to make the varsity basketball team; a girl I lusted after chose another; I was elected to nothing, and instantly recognized by no one; I was that generally disliked "poor but proud" young social misfit.

Then at the end of my sophomore year, I misjudged a teacher's patience and failed a course. I was advised to change my major. It was the low point in my life. I excused, I bragged, I lied, I hid, I cried a little, and then, in desperation, I began to think.

I arrived, slowly and painfully, at an understanding of myself.

Everyone I know experiences success and failure. To ignore one or the other is to bow, head hidden, into an ostrich stance. To learn to accept and use both failure and success makes sense for maturing men and women. Take away one or the other option, and you shortchange kids.

R is for registered—and also for the birds. □

♦ *The editors invite reader reaction to Dr. Bailey's point of view.*

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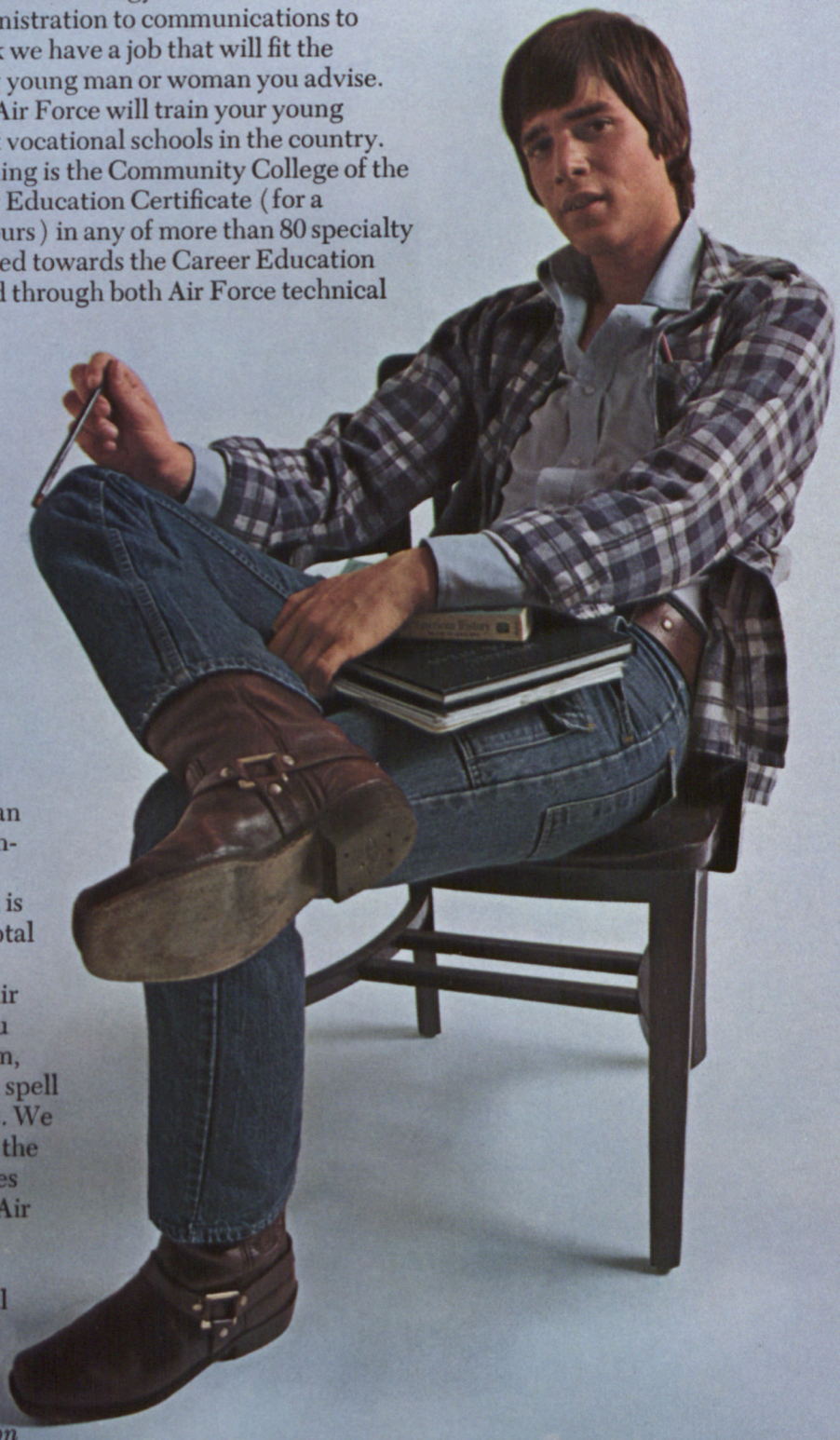

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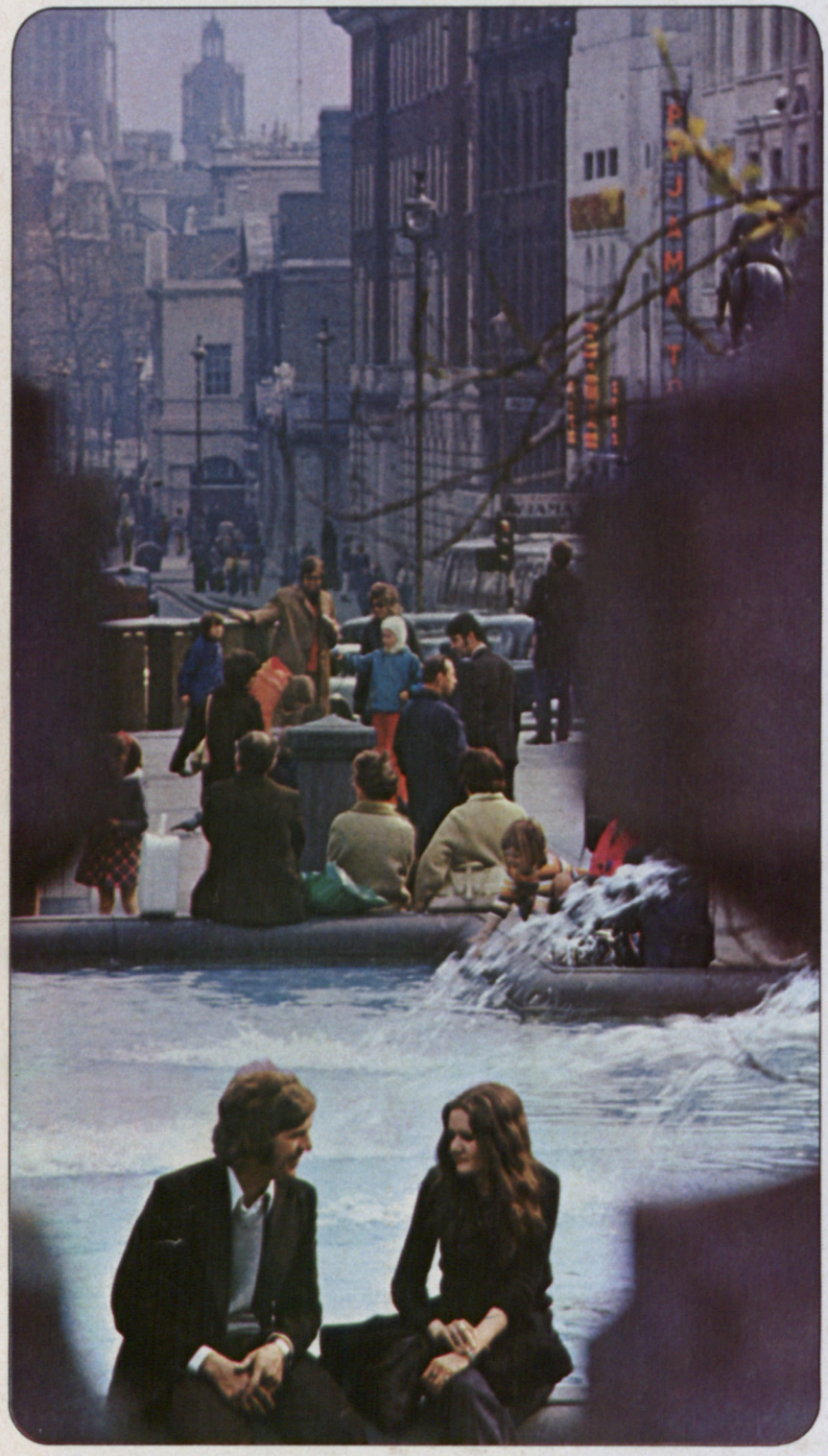

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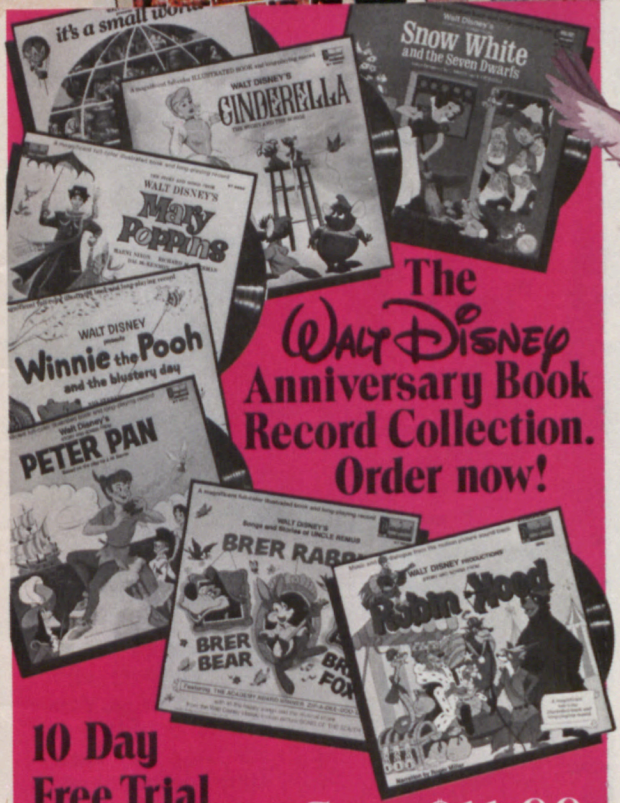

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